The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1889.

The Week.

It should be borne in mind that, so far as the Democrats and Independents are concerned, nothing could do more to clear the way for a Democratic Presidential candidate of high character in 1892 than the defeat of Hill's ticket this year. It would not hurt the party's prospects in any respect, and would improve them greatly. Nothing does more to prevent disappointed Republicans from leaving their party than the prominence and apparent power of Hill in the Democratic party. Then, too, the seeming approval of the Harrison Administration which a Republican victory would carry with it, would be greatly diluted by the evident fact that it was dislike of Hill and his smirched ticket rather than any liking for Republican spoils politics which decided the matter. Above and beyond all these considerations, it should be borne in mind that the duty of all good citizens is to vote for the best man, and there can be no doubt that the largest number of good men can be got into office by electing either the New York Republican ticket as a whole, or the Republican candidates for Attorney-General, Comptroller, and Court of Appeals, and the Democratic candidates for Secretary of State and State Engineer. There will also be opportunity to vote on the methods of the Harrison Administration in 1891 and 1892.

The Republicans of Buffalo have nominated for City Treasurer a man whose qualifications are found in a record as cook on a lake boat, keeper of a saloon, and understrapper in the Custom-house at $3 a day. The Democrats have nominated for the same office an able, energetic, and successful business man. The *Express* is a Republican newspaper, but it supports the Democratic candidate, "who," it says, "has every qualification and is a model candidate," on the ground that as between the two "no sane man would hesitate if he were choosing a custodian for millions which belonged to himself, nor ought he to hesitate when the millions belong to him in partnership with the remainder of the citizens of Buffalo." It is nowadays so rare to find a party journal supporting the nominee of the opposition on such common-sense grounds that a case of the sort attracts attention; but the time is coming when it will seem as absurd to go to the saloon for the treasurer of a municipal corporation as for the treasurer of a business corporation, and people will look back with wonder upon an era when such nominations were possible.

John J. O'Brien's peculiar relations to the politics of this city are revealed in even a stronger light than usual at present. As Chief of the Bureau of Elections, he has charge of all the election machinery of the city, but, as the banished Republican leader of the Eighth Assembly District, he is running as his personal candidate for the Legislature a liquor-dealer and companion of criminals, who has been declared by nine members of a jury of twelve to be guilty of bribery at elections, and he is running as his personal candidate for Alderman another liquor-dealer who has been tried for the same offence and escaped conviction. O'Brien's own reputation as a corrupter of the ballot-box is so bad that his party has been forced to expel him to escape the disgrace of further assistance from him. That such a man should be at the head of the election machinery of the city for several years after his term of office has expired, is due to our so-called non-partisan Police Board, which gets into a "deadlock" every time it attempts to appoint a successor to him. There is probably no other city in the world which would tolerate such a condition of affairs as this without making an effort to improve it.

The Hon. Elijah A. Morse, the proprietor of "The Rising Sun Stove Polish," has been delivering an address before a Congregational Club in Boston on the thesis that "American politics is not opposed to Christian living." The address, we need hardly say, abounded in "illustrations." In fact, there was little else in it. This is the one, however, which most attracted our attention:

> "But you desire living illustrations. I point you to Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, the man who had family prayers in the cars on the journey from his home to Washington to assume the duties of his great office."

Now, the Apostle James says that "pure religion and undefiled" consists, not in having family prayers in the railroad cars, but in "visiting the widows and the fatherless in their affliction, and keeping himself unspotted from the world." What view does the Honble. Elijah A. Morse think Mrs. De La Hunt takes of President Harrison's religion under this definition? The President discovered this widow's case himself, and used it to revile a political opponent; but when the time came to "visit her in her affliction"—that is, give her back the office of which, according to his own account in the Senate, she had been shamefully despoiled—he gave it to a male politician. Can praying in railroad cars wash out an offence of this sort? Not without repentance and restitution. Moreover, in various other passages of Scripture, the keeping of solemn pledges is made an essential part of "pure religion and undefiled." Nowhere is there any distinction made in the matter of keeping faith between family life and business or political life. Nowhere is it said that if you have family prayers after breakfast, you may lawfully break your official oaths or promises—"do the things you ought not to have done, and leave undone the things you ought to have done." What, then, does the Honble. Elijah think of this promise of the President, in view of such cases as Gen. Manson's, Col. Burt's, and several others?—

> "In appointment to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity the only sure tenure of office. Only the interests of the public service should suggest removals from office."

Religion, Honble. Elijah, is only valuable, only a thing to be boasted of or pointed to with pride, in so far as it influences conduct; for conduct, as Arnold says, is three-fourths of life, and is the proof as well as the illustration of sincerity. This is what makes one of your quotations very apt, but very hard on some of your "illustrations," unctuous friend:

> "Dare to be a Daniel,
> Dare to stand alone,
> Dare to have a purpose true,
> Dare to make it known."

Another of the Honble. Elijah A. Morse's illustrations is John Wanamaker,

> "the merchant prince of Philadelphia, Postmaster-General of the United States, a man who will not travel on Sunday, who every week goes to his home in Philadelphia to superintend a Sunday-school which he organized years ago among the uncared-for children of the street. What! a godly, religious life inconsistent with eminent public service! Have you read the Book, have you read that Nebuchadnezzar and Belshazzar found no man so wise in the affairs of state as Daniel, who retired three times a day to pray?"

Does the Honble. Elijah suppose for a moment that Daniel would have raised $200,000 and given it to Belshazzar to spend as he pleased, knowing well that he was a dissolute, unprincipled man, without either fear of God or love of country, and have taken office as a reward? On the contrary, sooner than share in the corruptions of the spoilsmen of that day, he suffered himself to be cast into the lions' den. It was not his public praying that saved Daniel, but his unshakable integrity. We are not surprised, after this discourse, to find Mr. Morse recommending "the manufacturers and business men of Massachusetts who have sons to educate," to withdraw their patronage and support from Harvard College because the President and professors do not agree with him about the tariff. It is astonishing how much venality of mind can exist under cover of this fluency of religious expression. The Honble. Elijah was elected to Congress last fall without any visible fitness for the place except the possession of a large fortune derived from his Rising Sun Stove Polish, and he was openly charged with having bought his nomination—in the absence, we suppose, of any other rational explanation of his getting it. We should not notice his performances as a religious preacher but for the fact that a Congregational Club, we suppose composed mainly of ministers, invited him to deliver his discourse at their meeting. The encouragement given in this way by religious bodies to the Morse type of politician is, in fact, one of the most discouraging phenomena of the day, because it shows that the worship of money, to which

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we owe much of the degradation of public life, is openly practised in the very temples of Christian morality.

Congressman Milliken, who has for some time represented the Third District of Maine in the House of Representatives, appears to have a better conception of the civil service than most of his colleagues. He is quoted as having recently said: "Only three men in my district have been superseded by appointees of the present Administration, and they were for cause. I have not asked the removal of any man whose term has not expired, and I don't intend to unless there is very great need for it in the interest of the service." When all Congressmen get upon such a platform, a hard blow will have been dealt at the spoils system. Mr. Milliken says further: "The Republicans of my district, so far as I know, don't desire their removal." This remark suggests the question whether there is anything exceptional about the feeling of the people in the Third District of Maine in regard to this matter. No reason appears why they should hold different views from people elsewhere in the country. Do people generally throughout the country really want the "clean sweep" any more than the people of Mr. Milliken's district?

The *Tribune* has made an investigation as to the attitude of Republican Congressmen regarding various matters, like the tariff, subsidies, etc. The most hopeful feature of this investigation is the amount of opposition developed to "national control of Congressional elections." Four Republican Representatives declare themselves unqualifiedly against the scheme, and no less than fourteen are noncommittal. The summary says that "several who favor national control of Congressional elections express grave doubts of the effectiveness of any legislation by Congress to that end, and the same view controls the opinions of three out of the four men who replied in the negative." One of these, "an influential Northwestern Congressman," is quoted as saying: "I am not prepared to advocate national control of Congressional elections further than at present. The difficulty in the South cannot be reached by a national election law." As the Republicans have but four more than a quorum in the new House, it is of course plain that no Federal election law can be passed with so much opposition to it among Republican Congressmen. It is encouraging to find that the discussion of the matter during the past few months has done so much to clear the public mind as to the character of the difficulty at the South and the hopelessness of expecting to cure it by passing a law. We doubt, however, whether the sound arguments against the scheme for Federal control of elections would have produced so marked an effect but for the fortunate coöperation of Boutelle, a Republican Congressman, in demonstrating, in his Bangor *Whig*, that nullification of any law, as of the prohibitory law in his city, is certain whenever local public sentiment does not sustain the law. It has been one of those perfectly logical and entirely conclusive object-lessons which the dullest Republican partisan could not fail to understand.

The Farmers' Federation of St. Louis (according to the *Tribune's* report) passed resolutions setting forth that farming, under existing laws, is a losing business, and asking Congress and the President "to make such reciprocity treaties with foreign nations as will cause such nations to remove customs duties from farm products shipped abroad, thereby resulting in a higher price for such products." The same report tells us that there was a sharp skirmish between protectionists and free-traders during the debate on the resolutions, but that the free-traders had the most votes. This is the first agricultural convention that we have ever heard of where "the free-traders had the most votes." It is also the first in which any resolutions have been passed looking to the removal of customs duties—for, of course, if we ask Germany and France to admit our breadstuffs free, we must expect to admit their goods, or some equivalent portion of them, free also. This would be a very good move, and we are wondering how President Harrison will look at it. A first-rate opportunity is presented to some rising statesman like William Walter Phelps to propose a treaty of reciprocity to Prince Bismarck, offering to admit steel and worsted goods free of duty if Germany will admit flour, wheat, and Indian corn. Then Mr. Whitelaw Reid might make the same offer to President Carnot. Minister Lincoln could not make such an offer to Lord Salisbury, because England already admits all of our agricultural products free except one. We might make a trade in that quarter by offering to admit pig-iron free in return for tobacco. This would suit New England perfectly, and is worthy of Senator Hoar's attention.

Other resolutions were passed denouncing Trusts, monopolies, and "option trading." The latter was declared a felony, or rather it was sought to have it declared such by law of Congress. Mr. Colman, ex-Commissioner of Agriculture, made a bitter speech against grain speculators, which caused excitement in the St. Louis Exchange. As nobody has ever yet shown how a farmer is harmed by speculation in grain, we shall be interested to see Mr. Colman's speech in full. We suspect that there is little more sense in it than there was in the speech of Mr. L. L. Polk at Atlanta, who, in his address to the Southern farmers, asked in a wondering way: "Why should a United States bond bearing 4 per cent. interest be worth 127 cents on the dollar, while good farms cannot be mortgaged for more than one-third their value at 7 to 10 per cent. interest?" Partly, we should say, because more people are bidding for Government bonds than for farm mortgages, but chiefly because the Government itself is bidding 127 cents for them, so that any owner of them knows where he can get that price for his holdings.

Señor Zelaya, a delegate to the Pan-American Congress from Honduras, and its Minister of Foreign Affairs, has said that an agreement by the Congress touching rates of tariff taxes "would require delicate negotiation." Any more delicate than a negotiation touching "a common silver coin" to be a universal legal tender—an international money—over all our western hemisphere? Of what avail are skilled diplomatists if they cannot safely turn awkward corners? What is to be the international ratio between silver and gold? The financial and currency conditions of Brazil and the Argentine Republic and other South American States will be a little more than, unaided, Curtis can handle, but it is in the air that Mr. Blaine intends to tackle, in an international way, the whole silver question. May he have a happy issue!

Dr. Jacinto Castellanos, the intelligent delegate from Salvador to the Pan-American Congress, frankly declared to the New York *Commercial Bulletin* the reason why our manufactures are not used by South Americans and Central Americans, when he said on his arrival: "When you ask me why we don't use more American goods than we do, all that I can answer is, that we can buy the goods cheaper from other countries. The chief demand of our country is for dry goods and machinery. The former we get from European manufacturers because we can get them cheaper; and I am afraid we get our machinery from Europe also. There is no doubt, however, that, all things being equal, our people would give the preference to American machinery." The first and chief impediment in the way of our manufactures is *price*, and to that he added another, which in effect still further diminishes English in comparison with our own prices, and which he thus explained: "American merchants do not grant us as long credits as we can obtain in Europe. Moreover, they charge us exorbitant rates of interest; San Francisco people, in fact, requiring 10 per cent. per month, while our rates are only 6 to 9 per cent. per annum. There is no satisfactory system of exchange with the United States, and we have to pay 32 to 38 per cent. to purchase letters to do business in the United States." What does President Harrison think of this desire for cheap goods? Does it not prove to him that the South Americans are "cheap men"?

A recent report to the State Department from Consul-General New at London, on British steamship subsidies, will confound Mr. William Eleroy Curtis, Mr. J. M. Lachlan, and the whole tribe of subsidy-hunters. Mr. New writes:

"The British Government does not grant subsidies, in the general sense of that term, to any steamship company, but the Post-office authorities make contracts for the conveyance of mails to the different parts of the world with the steamship companies having steamers sailing to those ports. . . . No payment other than for the conveyance of mails is specially made for maintaining communication between Great Britain and Central and South America and the West Indies."

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The same authority gives the amount paid by Great Britain in 1888-9 for ocean mail service as $3,184,435. The amount stated in Mr. Lachlan's "true public documentary evidence" to Mr. Curtis was $5,151,003, or about 70 per cent. more than Mr. New's statement.

It really seems as though the Grand Army Machine were determined to destroy all admiration of the Union soldier by showing him unworthy of admiration. Abe Patterson Post of Pittsburgh has just held a meeting and adopted a resolution which must make every self-respecting soldier blush. "Whereas," say these extraordinary representatives of the Grand Army Machine, "the survivors of the Second Maryland Rebel Regiment have erected on the battlefield of Gettysburg, within four feet of the monument erected by a loyal Maryland regiment, a monument commemorating the disloyal deeds of said Rebel regiment," and "whereas there is every indication that other Rebel organizations and regiments will, if permitted, follow the example, and thus undertake to make treason honorable," therefore, the Patterson Post, "composed of men who gave their best services in defence of the flag, and many of whom shed their blood on the battlefield of Gettysburg, desire to enter their solemn protest against this sacrilege, and most emphatically denounce any such intrusion by traitors upon sacred soil, and ask that the Gettysburg Battlefield Association, the chairman of which is our worthy Governor and comrade, Hon. James A. Beaver, Governor of this Commonwealth, cause the said Rebel monument to be removed, and express orders given that no more of that nature be erected."

We are glad to see that the war now raging in eastern Kentucky is conducted on humane principles, that the women and children of Harlan Court-house are "allowed to go unmolested." The casualties up to this time are numerous. Bird Spurlock and Robert Napier are said to have been mortally wounded, the former having had his jaw shot away, and the latter having received two bullets, one of which passed through the abdomen. Ben Mitchell and George Cole were shot in the legs. Thomas Howard got a flesh wound in the thigh. Jim Spurlock "had a close call": a bullet grazed his temple, tearing away a handful of hair and a few inches of skin, but not fracturing the skull. Will Jennings was shot through the right hand. The beginning of the war is involved in some obscurity, but it is supposed to have had its origin somewhere between the close of the Mexican war and the outbreak of the Crimean war. One account says "about ten years before *the* war," meaning our civil war. The causes were the usual ones prevailing in the region, that is, a feud between the Turner family and the Howard family. The Cawoods, the Middletons, and the Conrads, leading families in the county, are said to be involved in the feud, by marriage probably. Judge Lewis, an ex-clergyman, appears to represent the Law and Order side as well as the Church militant, and he has the assistance, for the time being, of the Turners and their allies. The Governor of Kentucky is thought to be taking an interest in the matter, and may probably detail an officer to watch operations for the benefit of the militia.

One of the "youngsters" who have access to the editorial columns of the Indianapolis *Journal*, and who never think of looking up their facts before they make their comments, remarks in Monday's issue that "the bloody war in Harlan County should be treasured up by Mr. Watterson for use in the next State campaign, as an incident further illustrating the fact that Kentucky, under a Democratic administration, is still keeping abreast of the civilization of the age." If this youth had taken the trouble to look at the office copy of the *Tribune Almanac*, he would never have written the paragraph. Harlan County is one of the "Republican strongholds" of eastern Kentucky, and cast 837 votes for Harrison and only 211 for Cleveland.

Mr. Thomas G. Shearman's article in the November *Forum* entitled, "The Owners of the United States," has no relation, or only an indirect one, to the single-tax doctrine. Nor does Mr. Shearman suggest any remedies for the inequalities of wealth said to exist. On the contrary, he "wishes it to be distinctly understood that he is opposed, on principle, to all schemes for arbitrary limitations of individual wealth, whether by a graduated income tax, a heavy succession tax, or otherwise; that he is utterly opposed to communism, socialism, and anarchism; and that he is of opinion that the enormous wealth of the few in this country has been forced upon them by the votes of the very masses who have been impoverished for their benefit." Mr. Shearman considers that the inequalities of wealth have been mainly produced by general acquiescence in the system of indirect taxation. Mr. Shearman's figures purporting to show the fortunes of various individuals throughout the country we cannot estimate highly. Those set down for Trinity Church, for example ($150,000,000), must be a gross exaggeration, and, if so, a hurtful one.

Evidence of the agricultural depression in New England grows aboundingly, and Massachusetts ranges up alongside of Vermont and New Hampshire. Here is an advertisement from the Springfield *Republican* of October 22:

DON'T GO WEST,

when you can get a fine 150-acre FARM right at home, on good road, near neighbors, for EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY DOLLARS. Excellent land; hay cut by machine; plenty of fruit; no end to the wood. Cottage house in good shape, good barn, sheds, etc. The farm is well located, only one-half mile to school, only five and one-half miles to Orange, as good a market as there is in the State.

If the house, barn, sheds, etc., are "in good shape," here is a case where farming land in Massachusetts must have no salable value. Is this on account of "protection" or in spite of protection? At any rate, it is not under the conditions of unrestricted trade.

The series of "bye-elections" which Mr. Chamberlain said would be a "miniature general election," closed on Friday with that of Brighton, at which Sir Robert Peel succeeded in cutting down the Conservative majority of 3,280 in 1886 to 2,507. There have been six of these elections. In one, Sleaford, the Conservatives increased their majority of 1886 by seven; in two the Liberals have wrested seats from them, in two have retained their own by increased majorities, and in one—Brighton—have cut down the Conservative majority as above stated. The outlook, as opened up by the miniature general election, is, therefore, very discouraging for the Liberal-Unionists, and the Conservative journals generally acknowledge it. The *Daily News* has introduced a new feature into English journalism, by quoting and contrasting the utterances of its Tory contemporaries before and after the elections, and they are very amusing, as the explanations of their defeats vary greatly.

The establishment of a college for Dissenters at Oxford is creating a stir in England which nobody but an Englishman can fully understand. For two hundred years Oxford has had nothing to do with people who did not belong to the Anglican Church. For a good while she refused them degrees, and then refused them office and emoluments, and has only very recently admitted them to full equality. But the religious spirit of the place is still intensely episcopal, and the young Anglican divines who are sent out from the Divinity School to fill the country parishes, cherish a very droll contempt for the "dissenting ministers" who are the religious teachers of the great majority of the English people, and indeed of the Anglo-Saxon race all over the world. Strong efforts have of late been made by the Archbishop of Canterbury and others of the higher clergy to bridge over this old chasm of social separation by entering upon friendly intercourse with dissenting clergy and religious bodies, but there is still an air of patronage about their efforts which the Nonconformists resent. Nothing will really bring the Anglicans and the Dissenters together but a recognition by the Anglican clergy of the intellectual and social equality of the dissenting clergy. It is with the view, in some degree, of accomplishing this that the Nonconformists have established a divinity school at Oxford, known as Mansfield College, under the presidency of Dr. Fairbairn, where Nonconformist theology will be taught, and graduates of the University trained for the ministry, and where the young Anglican curates will have a chance to see for themselves how silly their condescension towards "dissenting ministers" is.

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A RULER OVER TRIFLES.

THE subjects to which an American President elected in 1888 might have been expected to turn his attention immediately on assuming office were—taking them in the order of their pressure—the Behring Sea question; the fisheries question; the tariff question, particularly as regards the mode of levying existing duties; the abuses and irregularities introduced into the postal or customs service by his predecessor and other wicked Democrats; the Pan-American question; the silver question; the general condition of the civil service and the mode of filling it; the consular question; the pension question. With nearly all of these it is fair to assume that Gen. Harrison, when he took office, was unfamiliar. What civilized rulers, especially those who make strong professions of deep religious feeling, usually do when they find the tremendous responsibility of dealing with such questions suddenly thrust upon them, is to sit down and study them faithfully, and, in a case like Gen. Harrison's, prayerfully. This is indeed what is their duty, both to God and man. If he had been appointed president of a trust company, and on entering on his place were ignorant to a great extent of its condition and prospects and modes of doing business, and, instead of calling the officers around him and endeavoring to make himself master of the situation, were to occupy himself for some weeks in the concoction of schemes for ousting the junior clerks to make places for the sons of his friends; for forcing the scrubbing woman to share her pay with his coachman's sister; for getting the elevator-man to resign without being dismissed, and for taking away the service of the office lunch from a white caterer in order to give it to a black or brown one, the most charitable stockholder would say he was proving false to a solemn obligation, and had shown himself unfit for his place.

Now, this is by no means an unfair illustration of the way in which President Harrison has been occupying himself for the past six months. He has been wilfully neglecting all the weighty affairs of the country, and occupying himself with trifles such as, we venture to say, have never before taken up the time of the chief ruler of a great civilized state since states were first founded. When we picture, to any ordinary American, Salisbury's, Gladstone's, Bismarck's, or Crispi's, or the Czar's giving his time to distributing clerkships and collectorships and post-offices among humble admirers, and letting foreign affairs, and taxation, and trade, and coinage, and administrative reform wait indefinitely for a particle of attention, he feels bound to laugh heartily, even though he may not be a humorous man, and may be generally puzzled by a joke.

Every now and then revelations of the kind of things which occupy the President's mind are enough to make the gravest American smile through patriotic tears. We remark one which appears in the Indianapolis *Civil-Service Chronicle*. The President went out to that city a few weeks ago to lay the foundation stone of a soldiers' monument. What does the proud American citizen suppose was one of the loads on his Chief Magistrate's intelligence during that visit? Why, to devise means of getting a very efficient Internal Revenue Collector, an old soldier, to resign his place. He "endeavored to have a conference" with the poor collector on the subject of his own causeless removal, but failed, and had to come home *re infectâ*. But did he dismiss the subject to make room for weightier cares? Not a bit of it. He kept "expecting to hear from him." He watched the mail every morning, doubtless, and was wretched when the sickening announcement was made each day by his secretary—"Nothing from Manson." At last he had to write to Manson and tell him "a change could not much longer be deferred"—probably because the Presidential mind could not much longer bear the strain. The resignation then came, and a mighty burden, as of pardoned sin, was doubtless lifted off Gen. Harrison's soul. No wonder Mr. Swift, who voted for him, wrote of this transaction in the *Chronicle:*

> "The President appears at his littlest in this transaction, and few Presidents have done littler things. He is the President of sixty millions of people, and yet he carries about in his mind, on the most solemn occasion, the edging of an efficient officer out of his place. He writes a letter that makes his best friends in Indiana ashamed, and, to add to this, appears at his elbow that efficient agent of slyness, 'Dan' Ransdell!"

Sometimes, however, he breaks down under this awful pressure, and forgets the most solemn pledges, and exposes himself to the suspicions of the uncharitable. For instance, he told Congressman Frank on the 20th of July that Louis Wittenberg was sure of an appraisership in Missouri, but that if anything happened to prevent it, Frank would get timely notice. Frank went with this promise to the Treasury, found that the Secretary of the United States Treasury had heard of it from the President, and had engraved it on the tablets of his mind. This great financier confirmed the promise, saying to Frank, "There is my hand on the compact." Could Frank have had fuller assurance of anything in this world than a "compact" thus ratified by the two chief officers of a nation of 60,000,000, etc., etc.? We trow not. Nevertheless, Wittenberg did not get the place. It was given to another man, and the President had to apologize to Frank with strong crying and tears. The compact "had escaped his recollection" in spite of his "extreme caution about making any statement in advance." So there was nothing for it but to sorrow with Frank over his "disappointment." One cannot help wondering when the President will get time for the affairs of this nation, and if, when he is able to take them up, he will have more than the wreck of a once mighty intellect to devote to them.

A DISHONEST PUBLICATION.

THE steamship-subsidy pamphlet which Mr. W. E. Curtis has written, and which the Administration has fathered, pretends to have been prepared for the International American Congress; it has really been prepared for the Fifty-first Congress of the United States. The subsidy-hunters know perfectly well their objective point. They already have President Harrison and his Cabinet committed to their schemes; they are looking to the Pan-American Congress for a lift in the shape of a courteous acquiescence of the Spanish-American delegates in our determination to spend our money as we please; and the real battle they are bracing themselves for is to be fought in the Committee of Ways and Means and on the floor of Congress. The Curtis book is ammunition for that fight; only a small part of it is relevant to the International Congress. It develops a new and ingenious argument, which we may have occasion to refer to hereafter, to overcome the opposition of Western Republican Congressmen to voting public funds to Eastern ship-owners who cannot make their business pay; it argues the whole subsidy question at great length and on general grounds; it has ten pages meant for home consumption to one intended for the Pan-American Conference. If that body will agree to some vaguely worded recommendation of increased steam communication between North and South America, it can add a little moonshine about brotherhood and arbitration, and then go hang, for all these treasury-raiders care.

This false pretence of the book is of a piece with the author's own double-dealing in the preparation of his special plea. He gives an account of the South American Commission of 1885, and pretends to add a statement of the difficulties in the way of our trade with Spanish America, as they were found to exist by the Commissioners. He enumerates some of these fairly enough, but slurs over, under the vague and misleading phrase, "other minor obstacles," the really insuperable difficulty which the Commissioners discovered, a difficulty which they mention over and over again in their report, a difficulty strongly set forth more than once under the signature of Mr. Curtis himself as one of the Commissioners—the difficulty, that is, that our prohibitory tariff on wool and sugar and copper is the main thing that prevents our having a South American trade. Mr. Commissioner Curtis says: "If our country sees its way clear to the abatement of its imposts on these products [wool and sugar], then by a reciprocity treaty with the nations of South and Central America can be effected a very persuasive tendency to more intimate national relations"; Mr. Special-Agent Curtis covers this all up under the tricking words, "other minor obstacles." Charles Sumner once indignantly declared that he was a man before he was a commissioner; it is evidently the reverse with Mr. Curtis, and it must be a remorseful conscience that makes him break out into the frequent hysterical cry, recurring through his pages, "The protective tariff has nothing to do with the question."

The citation just given from the report of the Commission of 1885 puts us on the track of the real object of that Commission appointed by a Republican President. The instructions given the Commissioners by a Republican Secretary of State had not a word to say about subsidized steamers, but laid altogether the main stress on commercial

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treaties based on mutual concessions. The Commissioners everywhere bent their efforts to the negotiation of reciprocity treaties, and everywhere, as they truthfully report, ran up against the dead wall of our tariff. In the case where a commercial treaty has been found feasible—the case of Mexico—the club of the tariff beneficiaries has been shaken at Congress to prevent its ratification. So, in effect, our ex-Minister to Mexico, the Hon. John W. Foster, declared with astonishing propriety at the banquet of the Spanish-American Commercial Union last May:

"The late lamented and distinguished citizen of New York, President Arthur, initiated a policy of commercial reciprocity which, if it had been opportunely seconded by Congress, would to-day have placed us in almost complete commercial control of the countries and islands to the south of us. The legislative conduct of Congress has been strangely incomprehensible. It created and sent to Central and South America a commercial commission to investigate the best methods of developing more intimate trade relations with those countries, and then treated its most important recommendations with neglect. It authorized the President to negotiate a commercial treaty with our neighbor, Mexico, and then refused to put into operation the work of its own creation; and now, with a disregard for its own consistency, it has directed the President to convoke a Congress of American States, with a view of inaugurating a policy of more intimate commercial interchange! [Laughter.] If that august convocation—or rather, it has been earnestly desired that that august convocation should inaugurate a new era of fraternal relations and commercial prosperity between the nations of this continent; but if it does not fail in attaining its greatest objects, the Congress of the United States must radically reform its conduct."

That will do for a good Republican comment on Mr. Curtis's "other minor obstacles," and on the general dishonesty of his attempt to make the Commission of 1885 furnish water for the subsidy mill.

Of Mr. Curtis personally, we have only to remark that his present performance is in perfect keeping with the well-known fact that his pen has long been for hire. In 1884 he was an Arthur man (before the Convention), and then a Blaine man, simply and solely because his paper so ordered. In 1888 he was working for an independent paper that favored the election of Cleveland, and we find him trimming his sails accordingly; we remember, in particular, some despatches of his from Indiana, in which he showed up the unblushing preparations of the Republicans to buy the State, and which Mr. Blaine must have omitted to mention to President Harrison as among the claims to Republican favor possessed by his Special Agent.

MR. CLEVELAND'S SILVER POLICY.

AN article in the Indianapolis *Journal* entitled "Cleveland's Anti-Silver Policy," making the bold statement that if President Cleveland's policy had been adopted by Congress, "the country would now be in the midst of a terrible financial panic caused by a contraction of the currency," has attracted some attention, and some newspapers in the West have found no better answer to it than "You're another." President Hayes and President Arthur, they say, made the same recommendations. President Garfield held even stronger convictions on the same side, while Secretaries Sherman, Folger, and McCulloch repeatedly and urgently pressed Congress to suspend the coinage of silver.

The *tu quoque* argument is good as far as it goes, but there is a much better one. The Indianapolis *Journal's* argument rests upon the assumption that if the silver coinage had been stopped at the time when President Cleveland recommended that policy, there would have been a fatal contraction of the currency, and consequently "a terrible financial panic." How is this conclusion reached? By the easy process of computing what amount of national-bank notes have been retired since 1886, by showing that their place has been filled by silver certificates, and then making the broad statement that, "but for the issue of silver certificates, our paper currency would have undergone a contraction during the last two years of $176,000,000 *without any means whatever of replacing it.*"

We note in passing a slight error in the amount of national-bank notes withdrawn during the past two years:

The amount of national-bank circulation outstanding in 1886 (Nov. 1) was.....	$301,013,221
In 1888 (Nov. 1).....	239,069,230
Retired.....	$61,943,991

An error of $115,000,000 in a total of $176,000,000 is not inconsiderable to an accountant, but the *Journal's* argument would have been just as fallacious and untrustworthy if all its figures had been correct. The prime error is the oversight of such an article as gold in the commerce and currency of the world. Everything in the *Journal's* reasoning rests on the fundamental assumption, broadly insisted on, that without silver certificates there would have been no means of replacing the retired bank notes.

The law authorizes the issue of gold certificates as well as of silver certificates. True, we should have been obliged to buy gold to fill the vacuum, but we have been obliged to buy silver, for that matter, and, what is more, the public—the holders of silver certificates—have been obliged to pay 100 cents gold value for every dollar of silver certificates in their possession. So nothing whatever has been gained by having silver certificates instead of gold certificates. The vacuum would have been filled just the same if there had never been a silver dollar or a silver certificate, and filled quite as easily.

It will perhaps be said that the gold could not be obtained because Europe could not spare it. That was said in 1878 and earlier, when we were preparing for specie resumption, and many honest people so believed. Yet we drew from Europe, in the ten years 1878-1887, the net sum of $198,634,763 gold, besides keeping the entire product of our own mines in the same interval, which, according to the mint reports, amounted to $353,912,218. Europe has not felt very badly in consequence, so far as we have noticed, but if she had felt ever so badly, that fact would not have distressed us. Nations are not given to bewailing each other's commercial mishaps, but rather their own.

It may be said that although we pocketed more than $550,000,000 gold in ten years, we could not continue the operation. Since we produce upwards of $30,000,000 gold a year, and since the silver coinage has been at the rate of only $25,000,000, the question is not one of drawing on Europe at all, but merely of retaining five-sixths of the product of our own mines. Probably we might do that if we were to draw a long breath and make a pull all together. It may be said further, that the law does not allow the issue of gold certificates of a lower denomination than $20; but of course an act of Congress of two lines would cure that defect.

Is anything left of the *Journal's* argument? Nothing except its chiding of Mr. Cleveland for a supposed error of judgment, which he shared with Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Sherman, Folger, and McCulloch. We maintain that Mr. Cleveland's recommendation was perfectly right, although some fault, rather *ad captandum*, may be found with the reasoning advanced by him. Severe canons of criticism are not applied in economics except to professors of the science, or those who hold themselves out for such. In the walks of statesmanship it is sufficient if one has been right as to the main thing. In any case, an arraignment of Mr. Cleveland's policy by a critic who ignores altogether the existence of gold as an element in finance, would scarcely command attention among thinkers.

Mr. Cleveland was right when he urged the discontinuance of the silver coinage. When his letter to Congressman Warner was written, we were on the threshold of a panic brought about by the investment of some $50,000,000 of the Treasury resources in silver, over and above what had been taken into circulation in the form of certificates—this at a time when the public revenues were at an unusually low ebb. People thought that the silver standard was in sight. Some millions of gold, owned by private parties, had been transferred to England in consequence. Boxes had been hired in safe deposits to store gold in, which of course was drawn from the banks, thus tightening the money market. Mr. Cleveland's letter did much to restore confidence, although that was probably not his object in writing it. It assured the public that his efforts would be directed to prevent silver and gold from parting company. Gradually the revenues increased, and, although the excess of silver dollars over silver certificates in use increased to $72,000,000 in the following December, yet a help came quite unexpectedly from the large deposits in the Treasury by national banks withdrawing their circulation. These deposits were turned into the general fund, although shown in a separate account in the books. They served to swell the gold balance in the Treasury, because the bank-notes intended to be retired came in for redemption very slowly. So, in one way and another, the impending crisis passed off.

Of all the means open to us for filling the bank-note vacuum, the purchase and coinage of silver bullion was and is the most slovenly and expensive. The stuff has been declining in value all the time, and in consequence there has been a steady loss on it as metal. For cartage it costs sixteen times as much as gold, and for storage twenty-four times as

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much. The certificates issued against it do not circulate more freely than gold certificates would, but rather less freely. The reasons why they are oftener seen are two-fold: first, because gold certificates are not issued in small denominations, and, secondly, because the banks sort them out and keep them against a rainy day. Very wise it is of them, too. Perhaps it is the infrequency of the sight of gold certificates that leads the Indianapolis *Journal* to suppose that without silver certificates there would be no money. The truth is, they are an artificial and bastard money, whose existence prevents us from having a better kind.

THE NAGLE CASE AND CONGRESS.

WHATEVER may be thought of the outcome of the celebrated case of Deputy-Marshal Nagle, who has been discharged by the Circuit Court of the United States from preliminary arrest upon a warrant charging him with the murder of Judge Terry, without other proceeding than that of habeas corpus, and upon grounds that must be finally conclusive to protect him against all attempts of the State authorities to prosecute him for the alleged murder, it is reasonable to suppose that Congress will be aroused by this case into some action which shall provide legislative regulation of the Federal police power which is involved in the circumstances. If it shall incite Congress to appoint a high commission of judges and lawyers to consider the neglected subject of Federal jurisprudence and the wretched state of existing legislation, the worthless blood of Terry will have had, after all, some beneficial use beyond the immediate purpose of its shedding.

One has only to imagine the tragedy reversed—to contemplate Judge Field as the slain, and to ask what punishment could be meted out to his assassin by the United States under its existing laws—to see how entirely neglected the subject has been. It is true that no justice of the Supreme Court has been assassinated, nor hitherto had any been slapped in the face, but deputy marshals have been often assaulted from ambush, and sometimes cruelly assassinated, and none has ever known a State to punish the assassin. Minor offences of like character are not infrequent, but a brief telegram announcing the news has been the extent of attention paid to the matter. If Nagle had been killed by Terry, perhaps not more than a telegram would have been given to it in this case; certainly, if instead of protecting a justice of the Supreme Court, he had been in attendance upon a commissioner or an examiner in chancery, or had been serving a warrant of arrest against some "moonshiner," his killing while in discharge of that duty would receive not more attention at the hands of Congress than the killing of a tramp. Yet this matter is of far more importance than that of the proper procedure when the official happens to be the slayer and not the slain in such a tragedy. Terry, for killing Nagle, could only have been imprisoned for a year under existing Congressional legislation.

In consequence of the nullification excitement of a half-century ago, Congress provided for the removal from the State courts of prosecutions of Federal officials for acts done under the authority of the *revenue* laws, and the removed cases may be tried in the United States courts. But Judge Sawyer was compelled to rely upon the Habeas-Corpus Act to get hold of the Nagle case, and the judgment he has given to effectuate his discharge will lose force in the public mind because of the interested nature of the circumstances in their relation to the Judge himself—the same interested feature being present with any other judge as well. If the prosecution against Nagle could have been removed, and he had been tried by a jury of Californians, and by them discharged upon the grounds stated by Judge Sawyer, the performance would have been more satisfactory, more in accordance with established usage, and, in a certain sense, more constitutional—if that mode of expression be permissible—as a procedure preserving the right of trial by jury beyond all question. These same Californians would have been citizens of the United States and acting for and in behalf of the United States, but none the less Californians, and the *amour propre* of the State would not have been so shocked. But it takes nullification or secession and war to arouse the national sense of duty in Congress, and already we have a class of reformers suggesting that the exercise of the Federal judicial power in its fulness is only necessary in times of civil war, and that it must be further restricted than it already has been by its old-time enemies of the States'-rights school, who are always on the alert to restrict it whenever they can catch the Federalists asleep, as they have done quite recently.

A short time prior to nullification, a craze swept over the country in favor of the liberty of the public press in its relation to the power of the courts to punish for contempts, and Congress, taking the lead, passed an act almost emasculating the courts as to all conduct in contempt not taking place in the presence of the court; but, as some compensation for the lost power, punishment by indictment, in certain cases, was provided, so that for slapping Judge Field's face or killing him, if either could be brought within the statute, Terry could have been, at the most, imprisoned three months and fined, and that is all. By the old law, his right hand might have been cut off and gibbeted, along with his body hanged by the neck, for either offence, perhaps; not by proceedings for contempt, which would have secured only indefinite imprisonment, it may be, but certainly by indictment. Yet, since the Federal jurisprudence has no common law of crimes, and Congress has never assumed in any adequate way to punish such offenders, the Federal power, so well defined by Judge Sawyer, has lain dormant for one hundred years, as it has done in so many other respects where it might be usefully exercised were it not for the supersensitiveness felt for and in behalf of the State courts and their jurisdiction, which, at most, is only concurrent with that of the Federal power in such matters. And it may be generally assumed that the State authorities are not concerned, and they never have been, about the protection of Federal officials of any rank or degree, certainly not in any especial sense as Federal officials, and have only given them the benefit of the general law, as men or citizens, and not as officials. Indeed, many of the States followed the example of Congress, and withdrew from the courts much of the power to punish for contempts; and if the withdrawal were supplemented with punishment by indictment, the penalties are ridiculous when the offence reaches the grade of murder or of assault upon a judge, which is not more reprehensible than an assault upon other officials while discharging their duty. If Terry had slain Justice Field upon the bench, he could only have been imprisoned for three months, so far as the United States could punish him, unless it should happen that the court were held on a spot of ground ceded exclusively to the United States, where an act of Congress would operate to enforce the State law in such cases and places.

Congress pays no intelligent attention to the Federal jurisprudence. It patches the holes in the organization and jurisdiction of the courts after a fashion that is the laughing-stock of the legal profession, and, with all the power of its judiciary committees, nothing useful is ever done, for the simple reason that the members of Congress know or care but little about the general subject, and they cannot take their minds off politics long enough to legislate upon any subject not involved in the campaign issues that have been or are to be formulated for the struggles over the Presidency.

That which is needed is a commission of commanding dignity, charged with the duty of overhauling the antiquated structure known as the "Federal judiciary system," but more properly to be called "Federal jurisprudence," and reporting comprehensive legislation regulating the exercise of the judicial power of the United States. At present it is the most absurd "judicial system" known to English-speaking constituencies of any grade whatever; and the tinkering it receives at the hands of Congress from time to time makes it always more absurd.

POST-ELECTION FRANCE.

"Now that the smoke of the battle-field has cleared away," to use our stock post-election newspaper phrase, the French are beginning to count their gains and losses and make their plans for the future. Their journals are, therefore, unusually interesting reading. Of course, the first point considered is what is to become of Boulanger. There is, as well as we can see, a general consensus that he is for political purposes dead, and there are broad hints that he will probably end his earthly course in poverty and obscurity. The poverty has in fact already overtaken a good many of his followers, who were, as is not uncommon in such cases, adventurers "down on their luck," who saw a chance, by attaching themselves to a pretender of the Napoleonic type, of places, and honor, and power. The memory of the Coup d'État of 1851, and of the good

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things it brought to Morny, St.-Arnaud, Persigny, Fleury, and the rest, has not died out in Parisian cafés and billiard-rooms. To many of these men their connection with Boulanger brought them not only free board and lodging at the "headquarters," but a most grateful respite from the pursuit of their creditors. The election has been a cruel blow to them, and has, according to the *Figaro*, reduced some to destitution already.

As to Boulanger himself, there are many curious confessions of shame for ever having believed in him. One very interesting one describes the intoxicating effect produced on a party of artists dining at a restaurant one night, by the spectacle of a torchlight procession of cuirassiers marching to serenade the "brav' général" at his house, in the early days while he was still in the service and in command. They were so carried away by the music and the spectacle that they would have all voted to make him dictator had the opportunity offered itself at that moment. Looking back now to that incident, the party cannot understand their own frame of mind. It is interesting, as showing the standing danger to French politics which lies in the excitability of the national temperament unrestrained by strong political traditions. Each generation, as it comes forward, does not see why it too should not try to make a new France, and if, when it comes on the scene, somebody happens to beat a drum or wave a flag, there is always danger of a general rush down the nearest steep place.

The one man of standing and respectability who has lost seriously by the election is universally admitted to be the Comte de Paris, the representative of the old monarchy. He knew Boulanger to be a liar and charlatan, and yet he gave his followers directions to support him, in the hope that if Boulanger succeeded, the subsequent and inevitable confusion would give the crown back to the Bourbons. There is a degradation of royalty in all this which is now causing bitter tears to flow in select circles. The King in a conspiracy with a paltry adventurer to make the only regular government of his own country the laughing-stock of the world, is a spectacle which the faithful cannot bear to recall. And then the Republicans who expelled him are able to plead it in complete justification of their course, which at the time seemed brutal and unnecessary. "You see," they say, "he was after all nothing but an unscrupulous conspirator, whom no government could tolerate," and there is no answer to be made to them.

On the Bonapartists the effect of the election seems to have been very salutary. A good many are admitting publicly that their game is up; that, for weal or woe, the Republic is the choice of the French people, and has now a paramount claim on the allegiance of all true Frenchmen. For it must be noticed that the Republic is the first government in a century which has been able to attain its twentieth year. Most rational observers agree that had any reigning dynasty had to face public opinion at this crisis, with the usual amount of error and shortcoming to answer for, it must have gone down. The Republic has the supreme advantage of offering no man and no family to serve as a sacrifice to popular rage or discontent. If it is assailed in the streets, it does not need either to fly or abdicate, and may slaughter without mercy in its own defence. Moreover, a large number of Bonapartists are now convinced that monarchy in France, after these twenty years of abeyance, is no longer possible. Royalty has in every form gone completely out of French manners and ideas. A sacred person living in a palace, who has to be approached with the forms of divine worship, raised above all criticism, and treated as incapable of folly or wickedness, is something the new generation of Frenchmen could not understand or accept save as a joke.

To the Republicans, the lesson of their victory seems to be the necessity of getting rid of parliamentary "groups," and forming a compact party under a single leader. That the Radicals, or extreme Left, can ever be got to work under any Moderate, no one believes. But there do seem to be hopes now that the Moderates will gradually draw into their ranks a constantly increasing number of Royalists of one kind or another who have accepted the Republic, and are willing now to work for its success.

THE NEW FRENCH CHAMBER.

PARIS, October 18, 1889.

THE general elections which have taken place in France have brought no great change in our home politics nor in our foreign policy. It may be fairly said that we shall have in the new Chamber the continuation of the old Chamber: there will be the same division of parties and of groups; on all important questions the Republicans who call themselves Opportunists and who might also be simply called Ministerialists, will carry with them the Radicals and have a majority. And when I say that this majority will always be obtained, I mean on all the questions which touch the forms and principles of the republican government. The minority will be composed of the three groups of the Royalists, the Bonapartists, and the Boulangists. It may be, however, that the Boulangist group will have to dissolve as a group. A few of those who call themselves, even at this hour, Boulangists, will fall into the ranks of the conservatives; the greater number of them, following their natural instincts and tendencies, will join the extreme Radicals.

It is difficult to conceive how a purely Boulangist group could be preserved in the absence of Gen. Boulanger. "Hamlet" cannot be played long without *Hamlet;* and the collapse of Gen. Boulanger, as a political leader, seems complete.

"Quantum mutatus ab illo
Hectore qui redit exuvias indutus Achillî"—

how different is this Boulanger, now living in the solitude of Jersey, from the *brav' général* coming down the Champs Elysées on his black charger, followed at a great distance by a brilliant staff, bowing complacently to a frantic populace! How different from the Boulanger who, on the 27th of January, received 250,000 votes in the capital of France, and was proclaimed the representative of the great city, the city which Victor Hugo called "la ville lumière." All this is changed now; and it could have been prophesied, by anybody who understands the temper of the French nation, that Boulanger was committing political suicide when he left secretly for Brussels in the night, for fear of being arrested and tried before the Senate. His friends in vain found excuses for him at the time; they intimated that the life of Boulanger would not have been safe in his prison.

The discomfiture of the Boulangist party is complete, though there will be some Boulangists in the Chamber, and Paris has returned many of the General's adherents. Paris could not completely forget the overwhelming vote given on the 27th of January; but among these representatives of Boulangism there are no men of any talent or importance, except perhaps M. Laguerre, who is a remarkable speaker. There remains, so to speak, no Boulangist press. The chief supporters of Boulanger in the press have been the editors of conservative papers, such as the *Autorité* and the *Gaulois*, who have now thrown the General overboard. The editor of the Royalist *Gaulois* has said boldly that he tried to "confiscate" the General while he was popular, and to make him an instrument; but now the instrument is worthless. "The black horse," he says, "the revenge, the great sword, the promises made to all the discontented—the star, in short—has been effaced and obscured by the fogs of the Thames; and Gen. Boulanger, whose mission was to lead all the electors with him to the assault and to victory at the sound of the drum, has destroyed all the hopes he first held out; he has not given us the 'other thing' which we expected. He has thus destroyed his only excuse for being. We hope that he may find in his life some other glorious part; but we must acknowledge that for the present his mission is ended."

Boulanger read this article in Jersey after his arrival, and he immediately telegraphed to the editor of the *Gaulois:* "I have read your article of the 11th in the *Gaulois*. I have always thought you capable of all possible follies. I now think you capable of all possible treacheries. I send you the assurance of my profound contempt." To this despatch the editor of the *Gaulois* answered: "People can only betray those whom they serve. I only serve my King; I could not, therefore, betray you. Nothing can make me deviate from my duty. I leave it to the future to prove the falseness of your judgment."

This incident will give you an idea of the dissolution of the coalition which for a moment was formed between the leaders of the Royalist, the Bonapartist, and the Boulangist parties. The coalition resembles now the camp of Agramante. Much has been said, at all epochs, against the immorality of coalitions; still, it is not easy to see how they can at times be avoided. When many people suffer from the same oppression, they will always be tempted to unite their efforts, though they may greatly differ on many points and may not have the same ultimate objects. Under the reign of Napoleon III., there was a coalition formed between the Republicans and the Royalists, and the effects of it were felt even after the fall of Napoleon, since the Assembly of Versailles, composed of Royalists and Republicans, framed a Constitution which reserved the right of total revision—even the right of changing, under certain conditions, the form of government. This article of the Constitution, which provided for the right of total revision, has been repealed since in a convention, but another convention may possibly reëstablish it; and everybody feels instinctively that in our time no government, no form of government, can last long if it has not the support of the majority of the people. Revision, therefore, had become the cry of the coalition. The cry must, for the present at least, be abandoned,

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and we have before us a period of four years during which it is not likely that we shall have a convention, unless M. Carnot should have to be replaced, which is not at all probable.

The Constitution gives the President the right to choose his Ministers; but as the Cabinet is, like an English Cabinet, in constant contact with Parliament, it becomes, perforce, a mere emanation of the Chambers, and it changes at the will of the majority of the lower house. It is customary for the Cabinet, after general elections take place, to place its resignation in the hands of the President as soon as the new Chamber meets. There is no doubt that this will soon take place, and the President will, at the beginning of the session, have to exercise his prerogative.*

Whence will he borrow his Ministers? From the Republican majority?—but this majority is not completely homogeneous. It is composed for the most part of the Republicans who call themselves and who are called Opportunists—a somewhat barbarous expression, which we owe to Gambetta. By Opportunists you must understand a class of Republicans who do not pretend to any definite programme, and who will make reforms only when an opportunity presents itself. By a strange anomaly, while the Opportunist group is by far the strongest of the majority, its acknowledged leader, M. Jules Ferry, was defeated in the elections; the army is thus left without its chief. The most important of the lieutenants of M. Ferry—a lieutenant, in fact, who has lately been the real captain—is M. Constans, the ex-Governor of Cochin-China and of Annam, the man who closed the convents of the non-authorized congregations, and who conducted the French *Kulturkampf;* who, on his return from the East, turned the Senate into a High Court of Justice, and caused Boulanger, Rochefort, and Dillon to be condemned; the man who, after the Boulanger trial, ordered the general elections; determined, not over-scrupulous, a man of action, which is rather extraordinary for an ex-professor (for the revolution and the war of 1870 found him a professor at Toulouse). Many Opportunists who have profited by his energetic action, would not, however, dislike to see him out of the Cabinet; they speak of rewarding him with the Governorship of Algeria. We cannot say what his intentions are; he certainly has, if success is good conduct, a right to remain in the Cabinet, for in politics, as Prince Bismarck one said of M. Thiers, "He who takes up the napkin has a right to eat the dinner."

After the Opportunist group, the most important Republican group is that formed by the Radicals. They are, it is said, less numerous than they were in the last Chamber. Their leader, M. Clémenceau, is politically discredited, as he has never shown any other capacity than that for destroying Cabinet after Cabinet; an able speaker, afraid of responsibility, who so far has never been willing to undertake to form an administration. In the rear of the Opportunists and of the Radicals is a small group, composed of about thirty Moderate Republicans, men of talent, of good personal character, differing only from the conservatives on the question of the form of government, having accepted the Republican form as definitive, and being obliged, in consequence, to vote often against the men who would naturally be their friends.

If this picture is exact, you will see that though the new majority is Republican, the composition of the new Assembly will not be very simple. There are elements in it for the formation of many coalitions, and cabinets will probably have as little security as they have had during late years. Under such circumstances it is difficult to prophesy what the legislative work of the Chamber will be; it will probably be minimized, though we hear it said that we are going to enter on an era, not of politics, but of business. The success of the Exhibition has been great, and a large sum of money will undoubtedly be left in France by the foreigners who come to visit it. Many schemes are being made. It has become evident that Paris wants a metropolitan railroad; getting about has at times become very difficult in the central parts of the capital, and the population has become too dense. Our great companies of deposit are preparing to start all sorts of new enterprises. Electricity tries everywhere to give us light and power. Unfortunately, the finances of the State are not in a satisfactory condition, and the enormous military preparations which are continuing will still further exhaust them. Divided as the Chamber may be on many points, there are two on which it is easy to prophesy a sort of unanimity. The Chamber will be protectionist; the reaction against free trade and against treaties of commerce has been very marked in the circulars of all the candidates. French agriculture will be more protected, and, as the peasants form the majority of the electors, they will be obeyed in the end. The Chamber will have a tendency towards protection; it will also be pacific. Not a word was said in the electoral campaign on the subject of revenge, not even by the most ardent supporters of Gen. Boulanger, not even by Déroulède, the author of the 'Chants du Soldat.'

*He has just given notice that he will not accept resignations.—ED. NATION.

QUIVIRA.—I.

SANTA FÉ, October 15, 1889.

THE word Quivira is one of the best known and most widely circulated geographical and ethnographical names of the North American Southwest. Nevertheless, a great deal of unnecessary mystery (or rather mysteriousness) clings to it still. Many speculate where the Quivira was, and the majority wonder what it was. There are several Quiviras. There is the one of Coronado, known since 1541; the Quivira of Oñate, of the year 1600, about. Then there is an indefinite or nondescript Quivira, talked of and searched for until the beginning of the eighteenth century. Lastly there is the Gran Quivira of to-day.

It may not be amiss to treat the Quivira question in the light of historical evidence, for the very vagueness of the ideas current about it has, during the seventeenth century and part of the nineteenth, been greatly detrimental to enterprises, particularly such as were directed to the search for precious metals. The Quivira appeared only too often in the light of a gilded spectre—not merely a vision, but a spectre, deceiving, misleading, since it led those who followed it on the path of destruction instead of the path to wealth. It bears in this respect a strange resemblance to the South American "Dorado," or the tale of the man covered with gold. The "gilded man" cost innumerable lives and countless treasures in vain; so has the Quivira—the former in South America, the latter in the North American Southwest.

The word Quivira was heard by the Spaniards in Central New Mexico, on the banks of the Rio Grande, where now stands the town of Bernalillo. That is, there the plans for the search after it were framed. But the first intimation of the existence of a country the inhabitants of which were in possession of great metallic wealth was first obtained at the Pueblo of Pecos, southeast of Santa Fé, and through an Indian from the East who was a captive among the Indians of Pecos. That Indian filled the ears of the Spaniards with tales of gold and silver. He used the word Quivira freely, and gave them to understand that it was that of a very rich country or people. Coronado believed him, and went out on the plains in the spring of 1541 in search of Quivira.

It is well known that Coronado, with thirty horsemen, reached the desired spot, and returned from it to the Rio Grande in the same year, without having met with any resistance, and without spilling a drop of blood except that of his guide. The latter proved to be not only an impostor, but a traitor, who had allured the Spaniards on the barren plains in order to destroy them. It is also known that all the tales of treasure proved false; that neither gold nor silver was found, the only piece of metal seen being a fragment of native copper suspended from the necklace of a chief, and about the origin of which its owner could give no satisfactory account. Coronado and his lieutenant Jaramillo both assert that the Quiviras were a *wandering* tribe, *moving hither and thither with the buffalo*, and only different from the plains Indians in that they dwelt in frail round lodges made of brush and grass, and that, as the country was well watered and had a productive soil and timber, they planted some corn; otherwise they were as good as roaming savages. These descriptions are confirmed by the reports of the other members of the exploring party. All agree in representing Quivira as a country destitute of metallic wealth, its people as savage hordes, and their numbers as comparatively small.

After studying closely not less than five original reports emanating from Coronado or from soldiers of his expeditionary corps, I have been able to locate quite closely the Quivira of 1541. It lay in northeastern Kansas, about 200 miles northeast of Great Bend. It was a fertile region. Its advantages for agriculture were recognized by Coronado, and he plainly states that it was far superior to New Mexico in that respect, that it resembled the best parts of Spain, and that its plants and trees were more like those of Europe than those of the countries which he had seen on the American continent. It is true that many of Coronado's men refused to believe these reports, and clung to the hopes created in their minds by the tales of the Indian from the east. But all the reports agree in every particular—even Castañeda's, who otherwise is so prone to find fault with his superiors and with everybody else. Furthermore, the descriptions by Coronado and his chroniclers were accepted by historians and geographers of the times. Quivira was looked upon as merely one section of the immense steppes of the North—devoid of mineral resources, thinly inhabited, cold, and principally roamed over by enormous herds of strangely shapen wild cattle.

This impression was in no manner changed by the statements of the Portuguese Andrés Docampo, when, several years after the return of Coronado, he appeared in Mexico, coming directly from Quivira. He had accompanied Fray Juan de Padilla to the Quiviras, and, when the priest was murdered, he fled, performing the enormous journey from northeastern Kansas to Tampico on foot. Docampo had nothing to say of Quivira but what fully agreed with Coronado's descriptions. And yet the fabulous reports of the treacherous Indian lin-

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gered in the minds of many who took an interest in the unknown northern regions.

It is likely that the expedition which started for New Mexico under Leyva-Bonilla, against the positive orders of the superior authorities, about 1585 (the date is not, as yet, accurately known), was prompted by a desire of reaching Quivira and its supposed wealth. Nothing was ever heard of the ill-fated men, beyond that they perished in a prairie-fire somewhere on the confines of Colorado and northwestern Kansas. The course which Leyva and Humaña (who succeeded to him in command) pursued, lay east of the ranges of the Pueblo tribes—therefore, on the plains. Neither Chamuscado nor Espejo, both of whom had gone to New Mexico before (in 1581 and 1582), nor Castaño de Sosa in 1590, thought about Quivira. It was only after Juan de Oñate effectually occupied New Mexico, in 1598, that the search for the mythical region was again taken up.

"Distance lends enchantment to the view." This is as true in questions of time as it is in matters of space. Cibola, which had sounded so high and seemed so attractive immediately after its discovery by Fray Marcos of Nizza, had become well known through Coronado. It was again visited by Chamuscado and by Espejo, whereas Quivira was nearly forgotten with the exception of its name. Oñate took up the dream and followed it the more passionately as New Mexico proper failed to realize his anticipations. He set out for Quivira in 1599, penetrated into Colorado and Kansas, and came back without having found aught but steppes, buffaloes, roaming Indians, who were more or less ill-disposed, and some sections of well-irrigated and fertile country. The Indians with whom Oñate had intercourse on this journey were chiefly the Kansas. But he also met the Aijaos and the Quiviras. Reports were in circulation soon afterwards that the Aijaos had much gold; but the statement so far lacks official confirmation. Soon after, Quiviras came to New Mexico, and it was ascertained from them that their tribe lived north or northeast of that territory. It is about that time that another name for the Quiviras makes its appearance: it is the name Tindan. The Thinthon-ha, or Teton-Sioux, or "Gens des prairies," as Hennepin calls them on his map, were the most southern branch of the great Dakota or Sioux stock.

Thus far we have found the Quiviras always to the northward of New Mexico. In 1629 and thereafter they appear invariably to the east or southeast. The reports of Fray Alonzo de Benavides of 1629, the journeys of Alonzo Vaca (1634), and of Diego de Guadalajara (1654), placed the Quiviras in the Indian Territory. After 1680 they were located in northern Texas. Very soon after the reconquest of New Mexico (1692) they vanish; nothing is left of them but the name and a faint recollection of the many sacrifices which attempts at gathering illusory treasures had cost.

Not one of the Spanish expeditions in search of the Quivira resulted in more than positive increase of geographical knowledge. In that respect we are largely indebted to this phantom of the Quivira. It carried the Spaniards into Colorado, Kansas, and probably Nebraska. It brought them to the Indian Territory, and opened northern Texas. Every Spanish exploration had to keep its journal, and whereas, of course, observations upon the nature of the country, its resources and drawbacks, its people, were not made with the scientific accuracy of to-day, still they were made by practical men, well acquainted with life in the Southwest, and were faithfully recorded. From this point of view, the search for Quivira is a mine well worthy of the attention of present and future generations.

For the Spaniards themselves it was but a fatal mirage. The salutary warnings of Coronado had been forgotton, nothing but the name remained, and spectral visions of gold. These were eagerly followed by men who, thrust upon the unpromising soil of New Mexico, disappointed in the value of its mines, led a life of daily peril without any other relief to its monotony than the search for still greater risks. Such men embraced the pursuit of a ghost as a relief; not one secured remuneration for his ventures, and yet, strange to say, hardly a single one became satisfied that he had been following a mere phantom. They invariably found the truth—that is, they found a roving tribe which had gradually, in the course of a century, shifted its range from North to South. But every one of them looked for something beyond the truth, and their imperfect intercourse with the aborigines furnished information which, ill-comprehended, misinterpreted, confirmed them in their belief that the unknown beyond contained the goal of their desires. Their own numbers were so small, the means at their disposal so limited, that they were compelled to neglect the many other useful discoveries they made besides, and which did not immediately recompense the risk attendant upon the improvement of them.

In the above sketch I have not mentioned the second fruitless journey of Oñate in search of Quivira in 1606, and the problematic expedition of Peñalosa in 1662. The former went nearly due east from Santa Fé, and found the Aijaos again, whose northern neighbors were the Quiviras. The campaign brought no other results than hostilities, and a confirmation of what had been ascertained seven years previously. In regard to Peñalosa's supposed journey, while I am inclined to believe his report a forgery as far as the authorship ascribed to Fray Nicolas de Freytas is concerned, I am not yet prepared to admit that the journey itself, or some journey of the kind, was not performed by Peñalosa. He certainly attempted to penetrate into the plains, but without achieving much, if anything at all. The Maestro de Campo Juan Dominguez de Mendoza asserts that Peñalosa was well acquainted with every part of New Mexico, and had travelled over the entire country. Dominguez, it is true, is not the most reliable authority; still, as he was twenty-eight years of age when Peñalosa is supposed to have made the journey, he was fully competent to speak of the matter.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

Correspondence.

MR. LEA'S REVOLT AGAINST MR. QUAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Henry C. Lea's letter of October 15 to the *Times* of this city is remarkably characteristic of the political intelligence of a certain class of gentlemen. He will vote against Quay when the loss of his vote will do Quay no harm. And the reason why he will vote against Quay now, and why he advises others to vote against Quay now, is, because it will not hurt Quay. So long as Mr. Lea votes against Quay only when Quay doesn't want his vote, and votes for Quay when the loss of his vote would mean Quay's defeat, it does not seem likely that that gentleman's delicate susceptibilities will be affected. So long as Mr. Lea and his friends put up the money for Mr. Quay to use at the proper moment, he will generously close his eyes to any such little defections as Mr. Lea now proposes.

JOHN SAMUEL.

PHILADELPHIA, October 22.

[Mr. Lea—premising that "the President seems to have misunderstood wholly the lesson taught by the last election," has "abused the appointing power to place the party in New York under the domination of Tom Plattism, in Pennsylvania under Quayism, in Virginia under Mahoneism," has "degraded it and himself in obedience to a short-sighted opportunism which seeks to utilize the baser element of the party at the expense of the principles to which it and he alike are pledged," and is likely, if not arrested, to wreck his party by the end of his Administration—recommends reform Republicans to "omit to vote the State ticket," the only issue being "submission or revolt to Quayism." "Revolt," adds Mr. Lea, "can be safely indulged in," as it will only cut down the eighty thousand Republican majority of last year, not wipe it out.—ED. NATION.]

DR. BIRKBECK HILL'S BOSWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friendly but unknown correspondent, writing from the State of New York, asks me if the reprint, published by Messrs. Harper, of my edition of 'Boswell's Life of Johnson,' "differs in any particular as to the text" from the original. As I have never seen this reprint, I cannot, of course, answer his question. I have, therefore, requested him, as with your permission I will, through your valuable journal, request your readers, not to hold me answerable for any errors that may have been made.—I am, sir, your obedient servant,

GEORGE BIRKBECK HILL.

OXFORD, ENG., October 12, 1889.

COLLEGE TEMPTATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the recent inquiries in your columns for a college free from temptations, I enclose the following, only adding that Nos. 4 and 5 of this circular would be conclusive reasons to my mind why I should not send my son to Sewanee:

REASONS WHY YOUR SONS SHOULD BE SENT TO SEWANEE.

(4.) Owning a domain four miles in each direction, and having absolute control over it, it can guard students against those temptations that surround them at all other institutions.

(5.) Owing to its remoteness from cities and large towns, there is not the same inducement for its students to spend money outside of the regular college charges that exists elsewhere; hence the University of the South is really cheaper than most other colleges. The fees and charges for board are greater than at some other schools, but when we consider that there are no saloons, no billiard-rooms, nor gambling places allowed within four miles of Sewanee, we can see that in its higher charges for board and tuition the University of the South can afford to give its students the best tuition, and better guard them against the evils that beset other institutions.

Yours truly, F. P.

ANDOVER, Mass., October 24, 1889.

LOCKRAM AND LOCKRUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mrs. Dall, like other Shaksperians, has found so much in the great dramatist that she naturally expects to find everything there. Hence she confounded two different words—

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lockrum, conversationally familiar to her New England childhood, and *lockram*, which she learned from Shakspere. Not finding their received meanings to agree, or to be reconcilable, she writes for the *Nation* to relieve her perplexity.

Her own inclination is to twist the Shaksperian *lockram* into a meaning antagonistic to the infallible lexicographer, Alexander Schmidt, as well as to all the commentators. She would not have been driven to this heresy, nor yet have needed to pen her letter of inquiry, had she looked for the *lockrums* of her own early experience in the 'Americanisms' of John S. Farmer—a book justly castigated in a recent issue of the *Nation*, but which is inevitable till a better one shall take its place. She would there read the following from Sam Slick's 'Clockmaker':

"I'd say to the members, don't come down here to Halifax with your *Lockrums* about politics."

Here is her American use, though it may not be clear whether it was born among Blue Noses or Yankees. As it regards *lockram*, she ought to have turned to some standard Shakspere—say the edition of Johnson and Stevens. Concerning *lockram* in the passage she quotes from "Coriolanus" (Act II., Scene 1), their comment is: It is some kind of cheap linen. They cite Green, who says of a man's dress: "His ruffe was of fine lockeram stitched very faire with Coventry blue." Again, from Beaumont and Fletcher:

"I give per annum two hundred ells of *lockram*
That there be no straight dealings in their linnens,"

etc.

Had your correspondent had these facts before her, *lockram* and *lockrum* would have been in her mind far more clearly distinguished than tweedle-dum and tweedle-dee. Nor would she have spoken of *lockram* as "evidently not linen, but some showy gaud," etc., leading a forlorn hope to attack an impregnable Shaksperian vocable. X. Y. Z.

MADISON, WIS.

THE TENNESSEE BALLOT LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Dortch law was passed by a Democratic Legislature avowedly for partisan ends. But it produced some curious and unlooked-for results. While many, white as well as colored, neglected to register, none of those registered were prevented from voting on account of illiteracy. The party managers provided tin slips with slots in them. When these were placed right side up over the lists of candidates, the slots indicated the proper place to check the names. This device is regarded as a legitimate feature of the system.

The bribery consisted in merely buying the certificates of registry of members of the opposite party, and was thus rendered twice as expensive as under the old method. When the Republican whips, for instance, came around to urge these Esaus to vote at once, they received the ready answer, "I 'clar, boss, I done lost my *stiffcate*."

If the law stands till another election, which is somewhat doubtful, it is expected that a much larger proportion of the people will secure their "*stiffcates*." OBSERVER.

NASHVILLE, TENN., October 23, 1889.

LIGHT READING FOR COLORED INFANTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention was called some Sundays ago to some literature that was sent by "some dear, good ladies in the North" to a Sunday-school for colored children here. A list of the literature sent—which is to take the place of the children's paper heretofore distributed—may interest and amuse your readers. There are numbers of copies of each paper mentioned:

The *Salmagundi*, published by the students of a seminary; the *Ladies' Home Journal*, which is a good thing in its place, but articles on the complexion and how to make handsome evening dresses and fancy articles, etc., are not of especial interest to colored children, whose complexion and dress do not disturb them very much; the *Crystal Palace and Weekly Home Journal*, telling "What Society Does in Washington," and giving an article on "Social Etiquette" and others of interest to many, could hardly be said to convey much spiritual instruction to the negro; *Literature*, published by John Alden, could not be comprehended by a single pupil in the school; and the *Standard of Cross and Crown*, a magazine published especially for clergymen and professional and business men, is also beyond them. Last, but not least, there are enough *Ogontz Mosaics* to supply the school for a month, and Sunday after Sunday it is conscientiously distributed, and it is really pitiful to see the looks of disappointment on the faces of the poor little souls as they are handed another copy of the eternal *Mosaic*. It serves to light fires, no doubt. Now, I have nothing to say against the *Mosaic*: it does the young ladies credit; but I think they would be the first to repudiate its being an attractive journal to an uneducated negro. Even the best-educated children in the Sunday-school here read with difficulty, and are about as well educated as the average white child of eight or ten years; and the older negroes, with very few exceptions, are not educated at all.

Considering the deep and tender interest that the North takes in the "poor negro," it surprises me that the "dear, good ladies" did not take more pains with their selection.

Very respectfully, N. D.

ASHLAND, VA., October 20, 1889.

A PLEA FOR CHAUTAUQUA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit a Chautauqua student who has derived some benefit from the instruction received in one of the special courses, to say a few words in defence of the system?

The prescribed course of reading seems to me intended but to whet the intellectual appetite, and is supplemented by special courses under the direction of well-known instructors with established reputations in their specialties. The fee for these special courses is very small, making them attainable by almost any one who is willing to make some self-denial. I am familiar with but one of the books constituting the course of reading for this year, Prof. Ely's work on political economy. Prof. Ely calls his book 'An Introduction to Political Economy,' and in the preface states that he hopes the book will excite the readers' curiosity, and lead them to continue their economic studies. The impression he desires left with the reader after finishing the book is, "I do not so much feel that I really know a great deal about political economy as that I am now in a position to learn something." Prof. Ely, at the conclusion of each chapter, gives authorities that may be profitably consulted on the questions involved, and, at the conclusion of his book, offers helpful suggestions for pursuing the subject, and a list of works appertaining to the subject to be studied. If a Chautauqua student, after reading this book, fancies he has nothing more to learn, it is certainly not the fault of the author.

One of your correspondents finds fault with the preparation by the Chautauqua Society of special text-books. I should like to call this correspondent's attention to the fact that the demand for these books being very large may lead in the future to their preparation by the ablest minds. I suppose even a Chautauqua student may say that the pecuniary success of a text-book is very uncertain, but if such success is assured, it must lead to their composition by specialists who, without such an assurance, would hardly devote their time to them.

There are many whose means are limited, who feel the desire to improve what opportunities they may have. Unaided, they would waste time and become disheartened. To such the Chautauqua special courses offer guidance and advice, and the system should certainly not be lightly condemned, nor held responsible for those imperfections of human nature from which, I am told, the regular college graduate is not altogether free. C. A. W.

BALTIMORE, MD., October 26, 1889.

ERRONEOUS CONCEPTIONS OF MANUAL TRAINING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every close observer of educational discussion sees that the foremost question of to-day relates to manual training. This is so in spite of no small effort on the part of the conservatives to keep the subject in the background. It will come up at every convention of teachers. There are advocates who cannot be silenced, and every community is demanding definite information as to the scope, aims, methods, and results of manual training.

Under these circumstances, it is highly important that the demand be met and that correct reports be given. It is matter for extreme regret, therefore, that the educational world should have been misinformed and misled by a report read at the recent meeting of the National Association at Nashville. The Standing Committee on Pedagogics in the Council of Sixty Educators presented a report on "The Educational Value of Manual Training" which of necessity gave, directly and indirectly, a definition of manual training, and which discussed a variety of topics presumably connected with the nature and purpose of the manual-training school. What I regard as misleading and erroneous is these fugitive definitions and occasional side discussions. It is not so much what the Committee actually declare, with one or two exceptions, as what they lead the reader to infer, that is most objectionable, as will soon be shown.

This report has already been twice published in full, and it will be printed, I suppose, in the Proceedings of the Nashville Convention. I venture the assertion that an intelligent, careful reader of that report, coming to it with no previous notion of manual training, would rise from its perusal with a widely erroneous conception of the nature and function of that educational feature known as manual training. I will quote a few sentences and phrases to sustain this assertion. I am not now concerned with the deductions of the Committee as to the educational value of manual training. Let us first agree upon what a manual-training school is and what it aims at; we may then discuss its value. I quote from the text in the (Boston) *Jou* *on* of August 8. The italics are mine.

In the outset, the Committee "have proposed in this report to inquire in what precisely consists the educative value of the *branches taught in the manual-training school*." Yet we find statements like the following:

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(1.) "The *trades* that deal in wood and metals include the *entire curriculum of the manual training school.*"

(2.) "Your Committee admit the reasonableness of substituting a system of manual training in special schools for the old system of apprenticeship" for teaching trades; but

(3.) They "insist that *such manual training* ought not to be begun before the completion of the *twelfth year.*"

(4.) "Your Committee understand that any amount of manual training conducted in a school is no equivalent for the school education in *letters* and *science, and ought not to be substituted for it.*"

(5.) "The economic, utilitarian opposition to the spiritual education (?) . . . *makes sure of the child's inability to ascend above manual toil by cutting off his purely intellectual training*, and making his childhood a special preparation for industry."

(6.) "The *illiterate manual laborer*, no matter how skilfully educated for his trade in wood and metal operations, *cannot read and write.*"

(7.) "Boys may love the work of the manual-training school, and dislike history, grammar, and mathematics, and all book-learning, in fact; but *to be excellent in manual training would not prevent him from being illiterate and a bad neighbor, and a bad citizen—even a dynamiter.*"

There are other passages of similar import. The report points out the wretchedness of the street gamin, stunted physically and intellectually by privation and premature care. It dwells upon the misfortune of being unable to read and write, and enumerates the things one should know besides his trade. There is nothing in the context *at any point* to suggest that these assertions and dissertations are not all relevant to the discussion of the value of manual training as taught in schools. The picture the report presents is that of an institution where boys, not yet twelve years old, are being drilled in the "drudgery" of trade work hour after hour, month after month, without "the games of youth"; without due freedom from "the cares of mature life"; without science; without letters; without mathematics; without drawing, and without instruction in the duties and responsibilities of a good neighbor and a good citizen! The "entire curriculum" is given up to trade work along narrow lines by poor unfortunate boys who cannot read and write! What a sorry picture it is! I confess it seems incredible, but I appeal to the report itself in defence of my strong language.

Of what possible use can be any discussion of the educational value of such a training as is here assumed? If the manual-training school justifies any such language as I have quoted, then it is a crime against civilization, and its advocates are criminals. But what is the truth in regard to the "branches taught," the age of pupils, and the purpose of the manual-training school? First, as to its curriculum:

(1.) As much time, study, and recitation is given to science as to tool-work.

(2.) As much time is given to mathematics as to tool-work.

(3.) As much time is given to letters (language and literature) as to tool-work.

(4.) Half as much time is given to drawing as to tool-work.

Next, as to the ages of the pupils. The practice is very nearly uniform, among all manual-training schools, of making the *minimum age of admission* thirteen or fourteen years. The average age is at least one year more.

Thirdly, as to the nature of the work. The book-work is like that in high schools; in very numerous cases it *is* the high school. The tool-work is in no sense "drudgery"—it involves none of the cares and trials of mature life—nor is it in the narrow, wasteful lines of trades. Though dealing with tools and materials familiar to industrial life, its methods are new, and as unlike the ways in which children are prepared for certain industries as science and system are unlike guesswork and chance. Instead of "a narrow circle of trades," the shop-work gives a generous grasp of the scientific and mechanical principles that underlie nearly all industries.

Finally, we prefer to state our own purposes. We do not teach trades. We believe that the proper education for all youth to-day is a preparation for the duties and responsibilities of life, and therefore that our students must come out of school with the elements of high character, with vigorous, healthy bodies and minds, able to put hands and brains to work, to enter readily into sympathetic coöperation with the institutions of their country and time.

A manual-training school is not, on the one hand, a technical school for the training of engineers, nor, on the other hand, is it a trade school for turning out basket-makers or carpenters or smiths. In a manual-training school properly so called, no attempt is made to cultivate dexterity at the expense of thought. No mere sleight-of-hand is aimed at, nor is muscular exercise of itself held to be of educational value. An exercise, whether with tools or with books, is valuable only in proportion to the demand it makes upon the mind for intelligent, thoughtful work. In the school-shop the stage of mechanical habit is never reached. The only habit actually acquired is that of *thinking.* No blow is struck, no line drawn, no motion regulated, from muscular habit. The quality of every act springs from the conscious will, accompanied by a definite act of judgment.

Knowing and believing these things, it is hard to deal patiently with reports like the one under consideration, with its homilies on Arrested Development, Conduct, Illiteracy, and the Study of Pure Science, as though these were pertinent to their declared purpose. There is enough error and misconception in the world without adding to it under the august sanction and authority of the Council of the National Association. On the other hand, let us join hands to correct errors and to spread the truth.

It must not be supposed that I charge the Committee with any intention to mislead, nor with ignorance of the several features of the full course of study. By "the branches taught in the manual-training school," and the "entire curriculum," they probably meant only the tool-work, which, as I have shown, is really a minor part of the programme. It is much to be regretted, if I am right in my conjecture, that they did not say what they meant.

Again, and here is the severest thing I have to say, the Committee knew very well when they were speaking of manual laborers who could not read and write; of tender children working long days in factories; of bad citizens and dynamiters—they knew very well they were not speaking of any manual-training school East or West. They were speaking of certain *social evils* which are more or less connected with *trade work* and with *manual labor.* Their argument appears to be that in some way manual training is to be held responsible for those evils. It appears to be assumed that manual *labor* with tools, whenever, wherever, and by whomsoever performed, is educationally the same as manual *training* scientifically and logically taught in school; and that since the former is often hedged in with intellectual, moral, and physical depravity, the latter can be only an injury to education.

I insist upon it that our pedagogical friends, gentlemen whom I hold in high esteem in spite of this unfortunate report, have as yet no adequate idea of what a manual training school aims at, nor what its activities are. They have written a report which should have been entitled "A Discussion of Certain Social Evil which Manual-Training Schools are Destined to Remove." They set out, as they declare in the beginning, "to inquire in what precisely consists the educative value of the branches taught in the manual-training school"; but it is clear that they really did no such thing. They discussed the status of tool-workers who have had no education and no training. I am anxious to prevent harm to the cause from the publication of their report.

C. M. Woodward,
Director St. Louis Manual-Training School.

Notes.

Chas. A. Wenborne, Buffalo, N. Y., has nearly ready 'Voices of the Patriarchs,' by Luther R. Marsh.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press 'Standish of Standish,' an historical novel by Mrs. Jane G. Austin, and 'The Lily among Thorns,' an interpretation of Solomon's Song, by the Rev. W. E. Griffis.

B. Westermann & Co., New York, will market in this country an illustrated work of no small pretensions, 'Paris Moderne,' published by a group of artists (Paris: Librairie Nilsson). The letter-press will be furnished by Paul Bourget, Jules Claretie, François Coppée, A. Dumas fils, Jules Lemaitre, Melchior de Vogüé, etc. Woodcuts in the text and out of it and large etchings will accompany each of the twelve monthly parts, whose issue will date from December 1. Every phase of contemporary Parisian life and scenery will be depicted.

The 'Count of Monte Cristo' makes four volumes of the uniform English edition of Dumas's works which Little, Brown & Co. are issuing in Boston. They have the handy form, the bright exterior, the capital typography of the first of the series. The illustrations consist of etchings, two to a volume. No better dress for this romance could be desired.

Estes & Lauriat have revived, in a new version by A. L. Alger, Victor Hugo's 'Notre-Dame de Paris.' It is printed in a clear type, tastefully bound, and embellished in the "Tartarin" fashion—*i. e.*, with process reproductions of brush drawings, interspersed with the reading matter. The architectural bits are generally effective; the figure tableaus are not to be praised.

Macmillan & Co. send us the latest issue of the "Temple Library" series (London: J. M. Dent & Co.), being 'Select Essays of Dr. Johnson,' by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill, who has made Johnson his province. His introduction is complete in its information, and is very readable. His notes exhibit the same indefatigable research which characterized his edition of Boswell's Life. The print, if small, is distinct and elegant, and there are some delightful little etchings of Temple Bar, the hall of Staple Inn, St. John's Gate, Lichfield Cathedral, etc. The selections from the *Rambler* fill the whole of the first volume and part of the second; the *Adventurer* and *Idler* completing the latter. Altogether the scheme has been admirably carried out.

A little more than a year ago we noticed Mr. William Francis King's 'Classical and Foreign Quotations' (New York: T. Whittaker), a useful book despite many shortcomings, including too large a share of unscholarly or typographical blunders. The work has reached a second edition, and Mr. King shows himself ready to

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profit by friendly criticism, as almost all the errors we pointed out have been corrected. He has renovated his indexes, too, though not as laboriously as his scheme required. The result is certainly an improvement on its predecessor.

A second edition of Mr. John H. Wigmore's 'Australian Ballot System, as Embodied in the Legislation of Various Countries,' has just been brought out by the Boston Book Co. The original publication was most timely; and as interest in ballot reform is unabated, we may expect a great demand for this enlargement, which embraces a detailed account of what Mr. Wigmore rightly calls "the movement" in almost every State and Territory since January, 1889; a summary of the legislation of the present year (we wish the full text had been given); interpretative decisions in Great Britain, Ireland, Canada, and Australia; and much miscellaneous practical matter, regarding speed of voting, the formation of ballot leagues, voting machines, etc. In short, Mr. Wigmore has spared no pains to make a complete record of progress, and in so doing has furnished the only weapon needed by the friends of honest suffrage. We owe to him no small share of the extraordinary successes in legislation during the year now expiring.

An interesting manual of how to teach literature to children is published under the title 'Literary Landmarks: a Guide to Good Reading for Young People, and Teacher's Assistant,' by Mary E. Burt (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The author brings an experience of twenty years to the subject. Her pupils have been from six to fourteen years of age, and her plan involves continuous study for the entire period of eight years. She writes clearly and minutely of each successive course, with particular directions regarding the order and treatment of topics and books. The signal distinction of this little volume is, that it maintains the capability of children to be interested in the best imaginative works of the race, beginning with the Greek and Latin classics and continuing through Dante and Shakspere. The method is to present the stories of the poets, and trace the development of the leading myths, of the ancient world, the romance of the mediæval age, and the reworking of these materials by the moderns. Miss Burt rightly says that the classics afford a simpler literature than that of later times, and are therefore the best material to begin with. She is satisfied with the success of her experiments, and her pages abound in illustrations of particular results. Diagrams and essays by the children themselves are introduced, to show how their minds took hold of the subject. The effort to give them some knowledge of the contents and the continuity of literature has been rewarded, the author thinks, even when they have left school at the age of ten, as 50 per cent. of her pupils do. Her book deserves the attention of teachers and of those who are interested in home-education in books. The complete list of books referred to, which is added in the last chapter, may also prove serviceable in the formation of children's libraries.

Another manual of literature, in the dry, hackneyed, traditional style, is Dr. Horace H. Morgan's 'English and American Literature for Schools and Colleges' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). The least claim that such a compilation of facts and dates can have to attention is accuracy, but this is not safely to be put forth in this case. The author's reliance on dictionaries and other works of a general character which have not been brought down to date, has led him into statements as old-fashioned as his method; his including unknown and provincial names in his lists of American authors impeaches his discrimination; and his critical remarks do not win confidence in his judgment. The use of material at second hand is constantly betrayed. The defects of the volume necessarily deny it serious consideration.

A third publication on the same general subject is Donald G. Mitchell's 'English Lands, Letters, and Kings from Celt to Tudor' (Charles Scribner's Sons), in which he has gathered a series of agreeable talks to young people about the course of English literature from Caedmon to the death of Elizabeth. The author modestly disclaims exact scholarship and learning, but we have observed no fault in this respect. He is interested in the story. He tells quite enough about the early founders of English literature without allowing their dulness to burden the mind, and he is entertaining and picturesque—altogether an excellent introducer for the young to a region of literature usually tedious to them, and (except that we could wish he had been more open to Spenser's charm) satisfactory in all he says. Older readers, too, will find these talks a pleasant means of refreshing their knowledge.

From the same publishers we have received also a new and dainty edition of Mr. Mitchell's long-popular volumes, 'The Reveries of a Bachelor' and 'Dream-Life,' each with an attractive and appropriate etching by Percy Moran. Paper, typography, and a smooth dark binding (marred, we think, by the white cameo on the cover), make these volumes beautiful examples of the art. The vein of sentiment in the text (though one who renews acquaintance with it after twenty years may understand the better the author's deprecating tone in his later preface) is one of which youth never tires. It is not unwholesome, with its romantic sensibility and somewhat over-poignant pathos; it is humanizing in a true sense, and that it still continues to be read after forty years is a gratification to others besides the author.

The wants of those who desire an illustrative book of examples to serve as a companion volume to a manual of American literature are met by Huntington Smith's 'A Century of American Literature' (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), in which he has made selections from a hundred authors—from Franklin to Lowell. The choice of the compiler falls in with that of the popular taste in the case of the better-known authors; and in dealing with most of the one hundred he has properly restricted himself to the single pieces which have survived in reading-books and boys' declamations. There are, however, several selections which are fresh and well deserve remembrance.

'A Collection of the Letters of Charles Dickens,' 1833–1870 (Charles Scribner's Sons), gathers in a small and pretty volume examples of the correspondence of the hard-worked pen of the novelist, in which his vivacity and flow of spirits, his good-fellowship, his trials as a traveller, his public charitable spirit, and his fatherly care of his sons receive illustration in the most direct way. His immense delight in his success is one of the cheerful things in the book; but generally speaking it is not an intimate, but a jovial little collection—Dickens the friend rather than Dickens the man. It must be added, however, that in his case the friend was a large part of the man. The selection seems to have been well made.

The first number of the *No Name Magazine* (Baltimore: The American Press Co.), which is upon our table, is introduced by a hitherto unpublished boyish satire of Poe, upon an acquaintance in Richmond, which no admirer of the poet need be at much pains to look up. Other contributions (in accordance with the implied promise of the title of the magazine) are anonymous.

Another new periodical is the *Globe*, "a new quarterly review of world-literature, society, religion, art, and politics," conducted by Wm. Henry Thorne, and published at 112 North Twelfth Street, Philadelphia. It is too early, perhaps, to judge whether the editor will give reality to his long belief that "a first-class literary review could and should be published in this country." A very brief intimation of the "Characteristics of Philadelphia" points out that city's low rank in commerce, architecture, etc., but alleges that "in the matter of literature we are stronger than ever." As the editor promises to return to the subject and give it radical treatment, we will only say that a low estate in point of literary originality, independence, and productiveness has seemed to us as necessarily Philadelphia's portion as in the particulars enumerated, and from one cause mainly—perfect subserviency to the doctrine of protection. Mr. Thorne is a follower of Carlyle and of Ruskin. The unsigned review of Cabot's 'Life of Emerson' contains much truth, pungently expressed.

The Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University is now ready to deliver No. 1 of the *Beiträge zur Assyriologie und vergleichenden semitischen Sprachwissenschaft*, edited by Prof. Paul Haupt of that institution in connection with Prof. Friedrich Delitzsch of the University of Leipzig. This periodical will be issued at irregular intervals, and will form a pendant to the quarto volumes of Delitzsch and Haupt's "Assyriological Library." Contributions in other languages than German will be admissible. The same agency will receive subscriptions for the new monthly *Hospital Bulletin* authorized to be issued by the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins Hospital. Nine numbers will be issued annually, beginning next month.

A. C. Armstrong & Co. are to issue conjointly with Elliot Stock the London *Bookworm*, second series.

Prof. W. M. Davis's paper on "The Rivers and Valleys of Pennsylvania," in the third number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, is one of the first to stamp that publication with a character something more than dilettante. It is clearly illustrated by the writer.

An interesting account of Lake Tanganyika, read by Mr. E. C. Hore before the British Association, opens the October Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. This water is the drainage reservoir of an area extending some 600 miles from north to south, with an extreme breadth of 300 miles, and until recently has had no outlet. The amount of rainfall has for an unknown period exceeded the loss by evaporation, so that the lake has gradually risen until, in 1874, the time of Commander Cameron's visit, it was brimful, reaching the summit of its shore barrier in two places, one on the east, the other on the west coast. The contour of the land to the east soon checked the outflow in this direction; but to the west the land slopes rapidly, and the water cut a deep channel and flows into the Congo. In 1878, when Mr. Hore began his observations, it was a rushing torrent, and had already lowered the level of the lake, which is 420 miles long by ten to fifty broad, four feet. In the succeeding ten years the lake fell eighteen feet more, but now the outflow is very sensibly diminishing, and will probably soon represent simply the inch or two of excess of rainfall over the evaporation. A striking description is given of the peculiar meteorological phenomena, the thunder-storms of the lake. Ten distinct tribes inhabit the shores, representing all the African families, from the Gal-

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las on the north to the Zulus on the south, and even including the cannibal dwarfs. It is remarkable that the oldest inhabitants make the least use of the lake, while the representatives of the Gallas, though "the most expert canoeists and fishermen, and the only users of the catamaran," have such a prejudice against "the water," as they call it, that they consider it unlucky for their principal chief to see it.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for October contains an account by Moriz von Déchy of the region about Adai-Choch, in the Caucasus, together with a description of the first ascent of the central peak. From the careful measurements of one of the glaciers it appeared that within a year it had receded twenty feet. This is followed by an enthusiastic account, by Dr. Julius Röll, of a mountain in Washington Territory, which he visited last year while collecting specimens for the German National-Arboretum at Zöschen near Merseburg. It is situated between two lakes, some twenty miles from the station of Easton, on the Northern Pacific Railroad. The view from the summit is remarkably fine, especially of Mt. Tacoma, of which he says: "I have never, neither in Switzerland nor in the Tyrol, neither in the Rocky Mountains nor in the Cascades, seen a mountain which could be compared with it, Mont Blanc and Monte Rosa not excepted." Finding that the mountain, which is about 7,500 feet high, was without a name, he called it Mt. Rigi, and he prophesies that before long there will be a railway to the top. Maps accompany both papers.

The Société Finlandaise d'Archéologie has published a handsome folio containing the inscriptions of Ienissei. There is an introduction giving the history of the discovery of the monuments, copies of the inscriptions, and photographs of the monuments.

The October number of *Le Livre* offers its readers a genuine surprise. With the end of the year, it is announced, this magazine will terminate its existence in its present shape and on its present plan, and to its twenty volumes an index will be supplied if the requisite support is forthcoming. M. Octave Uzanne will carry over the name and his personal direction to the new departure, a small octavo, which will appeal to a restricted audience—1,000 subscribers and no more—and deal with contemporary literature and biblomania, in accordance with a programme at once too extensive and too vague to summarize. It has been evident of late that *Le Livre* has been laboring to maintain its original scheme, particularly in the fore part of the magazine; and M. Uzanne gives notice that the new venture will be conveniently Protean as to the color of its covers, and even perhaps as to size and character, from time to time.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us the latest addition to his photographic gallery of eminent Americans—a half-life-size panel portrait of James Russell Lowell. It is, in our judgment, the most admirable of all taken in Mr. Lowell's later years, and can be heartily recommended to those who desire an adequate memorial of the poet, scholar, diplomatist, and Independent in politics.

A circular of the Harvard Law School Association shows a membership of 848 members, representing nearly the entire Union, and more than a quarter of the living alumni of the School, the fostering of which is the immediate object of the Association. A revised edition of the catalogue of the members of the School from the commencement will be distributed next year. The low fee of membership in the Association is so slight that there can be no excuse for not joining. The management is a distinguished body. The Treasurer is Mr. Winthrop H. Wade, 10 Tremont Street, Boston.

During the coming year *Harper's Magazine* will publish a series of three articles on "Three Distinctive Types of American University Life," Yale being described by Mr. Chauncey Depew, Harvard by Prof. Norton, and Princeton by Prof. Sloane. The writers just named are certainly also "distinctive types."

—The leading paper of the November *Atlantic* is a short dissertation, by Mr. Woodrow Wilson, upon the "Character of Democracy in the United States." The view taken is the well-worn one that our institutions are derived from English precedents and not from Continental thinkers, from habit and not from doctrine. The influence of Europe, the writer thinks, is now being conveyed in the streams of immigration, and will enter somewhat into the forces that shape the future. In the circumstances in which we now find ourselves, he maintains that the great want in our system is the lack of leadership in legislation. The entire article abounds in reflections, in apposite phrases, in concise and pointed thought; but the principle of legislative leadership, which appears to be the objective point of the writer, has no necessary connection with the general remarks which make up the body of the article. Although the questions raised are not new, so intelligent and aggressive a discussion of them must attract notice. The second thoughtful article of the number is Prof. Charles H. Moore's paper upon the "Materials for Landscape Art in America." The survey, which is practically confined to the New England and Middle States, is depressing to this artist. He looks for the marks of man's presence and influence on the scene, and desires also the age that gives tone and picturesqueness to the works of man, and necessarily he is disappointed; his search for the beautiful, however, among our bridges and along the roadsides, with his eyes intent only on the human element in the scene, is interesting. The career of Marie Bashkirtseff, as told in her diary, is a story likely to attract much notice as a literary sensation, and is agreeably treated in Sophia Kirk's résumé of the volume.

— *Scribner's* is of unusual interest. Col. H. G. Prout (Baroud Bey) contributes the promised article upon the Equatorial Provinces, where Emin exercises his extraordinary power, and gives in brief compass an admirable account of the geography, history, ethnology, and the present condition and prospects of the country. The view he holds seems to be that which Gordon expressed in saying, "I returned with the sad conviction that no good could be done in those parts, and that it would have been better had no expedition ever been sent." Emin, he thinks, may, by sacrificing himself to the people there, postpone the relapse into barbarism for some years; but unless physical control is exercised over the region, either through the Sudan or from the south, by some one "better than the Turk, the Arab, or the Circassian," the negro savage will return to his original state. The personal reminiscences of Gordon in the paper add to its interest. A topic which should be always a living one in this country is treated at large by Prof. J. Russell Soley of our navy, under the heading, "The Effect on American Commerce of an Anglo-Continental War." He takes up the commonly discussed phase of the question in regard to the transfer of English shipping to neutral Powers, and concludes that there would be such delay in removing the restrictions on our merchants that this country would get only a small share, if any, of the English carrying-trade. He then comes to the important question of international law in regard to the power of belligerents to declare provisions contraband, reviews the history of the subject down to the last French precedent of Tonquin, and shows the danger in which our export trade would be placed if our fleet were unable to support at once our views of neutral rights upon the ocean. The article opens the whole subject in a broad spirit. We have room only to mention Dr. Starr's paper upon "Electricity in relation to the Human Body," with special reference to its slight curative power, and Oscar Browning's description of "Goethe's House at Weimar," with its numerous cuts of the rooms so long closed to the public. Marie Bashkirtseff's career is treated also in this magazine by Josephine Lazarus.

— The history of the American stage receives entertaining illustration in the opening chapter of Joseph Jefferson's autobiography in the *Century Magazine*, in which he gathers anecdote and incident relating to his childhood and early years, more particularly in the Western and Southern circuit, and makes the reader personally acquainted with him in a frank and familiar narrative. The many cuts which adorn the instalment, principally portraits of well-known actors mentioned in the text, are full of vigor. Another interesting set of illustrations is given in connection with Mr. Brander Matthews's account of the Grolier Club of this city and the publications which have distinguished its career. No club of exactly the same character and scope is to be found in any other of the great capitals of the world, and, though its publications are for a narrow circle, the result of its influence upon the art of bookmaking in America will be, it is hoped, more widely spread. The edition of Richard de Bury's 'Philobiblon,' now in hand, will be one of the Club's "monuments," and the choice could not be bettered. Very remote from tastes so elegant and luxurious as these is the series of brief extracts from Mark Twain's 'A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court,' in which the modern age turns the light of its ridicule upon the legend of chivalry with farcical effect, and in a spirit of realism not to be approached by those who cultivate it as an art. Another humorous article of a different order is the paper of reminiscences of "The Newness," as the movement of the more extreme social reformers in New England at the period of transcendentalism was called. The vagaries of the disciples who came under the writer's observation were amusing enough, but such as to make one wonder at the toleration they met with even more than at the odium they occasionally encountered. The increasing disposition of organized Christian thought to take part in social and quasi-political discussion is signalized by the first of a series of papers, by a kind of syndicate of ecclesiastical and lay writers, entitled "Present-Day Papers."

—*Harper's* also presents a richly illustrated theatrical paper, by Mr. Laurence Hutton, under the title, "A Century of Hamlet." He reviews the acting of this character in New York from its first presentation in 1761, with a minuteness and breadth of knowledge such as is now to be expected from this well-informed authority, and with great liberality of judgment upon the various types which different temperaments have worked out under the inspiration of the play. The cuts are, in several cases, curious, and the portraits, though uneven in excellence, are generally good. "The Mexican Army," "York," and "The Republic of Colombia" are the leading articles, which have for their object general information, and

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are capably done. The picturesque elements of the historic cathedral city of the north of England are made full use of both by the artist and the writer of the text; and perhaps in the case of Colombia, the timeliness of the topic may be held to compensate for the absence of illustrations. Prof. Charles Eliot Norton writes, in his accustomed vein of noble language and feeling, of the building of the Cathedral of Chartres, and gives some details of the architecture in well-chosen cuts. Mr. Gibson's "Bird-Notes" is also remarkable for its characteristic sketches of nature. The entire number is pictorial to a degree that tends to make one forget the conspicuous absence of any paper of more than passing interest.

—The initial number of the third volume of the *Journal of Morphology* (June, 1889) shows a distinct falling off from the high place hitherto maintained, although each of the four papers presents noteworthy facts and generalizations. More than half of the space is occupied by McMurrich's account of the Bahama Actinaria, containing excellent expositions of their structure, distribution, and affinities, with four fine plates. Among the general remarks, p. 71, is one to the effect that "the relationship of the West Indian Actinaria to those of the Pacific is another piece of evidence in favor of a past communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans through the Isthmus of Panama." Mr. Peck's demonstration of considerable "variation of the spinal nerves in the caudal region of the domestic pigeon" shows, among other things, that the *filum terminale* of the spinal cord extends far into the coccyx, and presents a canal to its extremity, and that the bird has no *cauda equina* like that of mammals. The two papers of Dr. Shufeldt, on the anatomy of the burrowing owl and on the osteology and classification of the passerine birds of North America, are far from satisfactory in several respects. The first paragraph of the "Conclusions" in the latter paper is hardly atoned for by suggestive remarks upon, *e. g.*, the high rank of the raven. The other paper contains entire paragraphs of but little value, *e. g.*, that respecting the brain on p. 118; and on every page there is more or less of what, in a less dignified periodical, would be characterized as "padding." The number exhibits some lack of editorial supervision or of proof-reader's care: a lumen may be *distinct*, but hardly "prominent" (p. 132); on p. 123, *point* should be *level;* on p. 128, sixth line from top, *is* should be *in*. *Cœca* for *cœcum* (p. 123), and *Cathatidæ* for *Cathartidæ* (p. 121) are examples of needless typographical errors. It is gratifying to all morphologists, and particularly to those of this country, to note, from the title-page, that the editor has been made Professor of Animal Morphology in the newly opened Clark University at Worcester, Mass.

— Next to the complete absence of undergraduate work and men, and the exclusion of about nine out of every ten applicants, one of the most novel features of Clark University is the system of Docents. Their functions have just been defined as follows: The highest annual appointment is that of Docent. This rank and title is primarily intended as an honor to be awarded to those worthy of more permanent and lucrative positions, as professors or assistant-professors in colleges. It may be bestowed, without examination, upon a few men who have advanced beyond the requirements of a doctorate, and who satisfy the authorities of the University by a thesis, a public address, or in any other way, of both their scientific attainments and their teaching ability; and, if necessary, it may be accompanied by a salary. Docents may be provided with individual rooms, and special apparatus may be purchased for their research if desired and approved. They may also be equipped and sent on scientific expeditions. While they will be expected, during some part of the year, to deliver a limited number of lectures on some special chapter of their department, their time will usually be reserved for study and research in a way best adapted to qualify them still more fully for academic advancement. It is believed that by the existence of such a select body of men of guaranteed scientific training, ability, and approved power to teach, the difficulties under which college trustees sometimes succumb in selecting suitable men for their professors may be diminished, and that otherwise this academic grade will aid in raising standards of scholarships in colleges and in encouraging scientific research. In addition to this, Docents are to be entirely independent of the leading professors in all the subject matter and manner of teaching, and are accountable directly to the president and trustees. They are not assistants, but have free use of all books and apparatus for their work. It is the design of the authorities that they should illustrate the entire freedom of teaching, and be at liberty to rival or compete with any course or research of any professor. Should they become in any sense assistants of the leading professors, they will entirely fail of their function. Seven have already been appointed, and there are a number of further applications.

—It may be remembered that last January the *Matin* sent out a circular letter, of which we spoke at the time, to certain well-known literary men, and scholars and artists, asking their opinion of Gen. Boulanger. Since the last elections the *Écho de Paris* has done much the same thing, and prints a number of the answers it has received, some of which are amusing. M. A. Mézières writes seriously of the painfulness of a revolution in cold blood at the ballot-box; and with some reason, for France is perhaps the only country on earth that would consent to put its form of government on trial for its life at every election. M. Maxime Du Camp fears much angry obstructiveness on the part of the minority in the Chamber. M. Jules Simon has nothing to say of Boulanger, except that the mention of his name bores him, and that he hopes that this will cease before long. M. Goblet thinks it best to be silent, since he has just been beaten. MM. André Theuriet and Zola trust that now they may be left to write in peace. Louise Michel rises to a height of Pythian eloquence:

"They who, calm, watch the dawning of the new era, hear in the hush that goes before the cyclone the chant of Labor:

"Plutôt que travailler
Sans pain et sans s'abriter,
La tombe,
La tombe!

"Compagnes, compagnons,
Debout tous, et nous prendrons
Le monde,
Le monde!"

Paulus, the singer, makes a very light response. He has sold 300,000 copies of "En r'venant d'la r'vue," he says, and 300,000 also of the "Père de Victoire," so that honors are easy between the two parties, so far as concerns him. His new song, "La Boiteuse," will be the success of the day, doubtless, since the electoral situation seems to him also *boiteuse*. MM. Bocher, de Broglie, de MacMahon, Canrobert, Daudet, and P. Bourget decline, for various reasons, to express any opinion.

—A recent number of one of the illustrated Copenhagen papers contains a very appreciative account of our late Minister to Denmark, Mr. Rasmus B. Anderson. The writer, after commenting briefly on Mr. Anderson's services to Scandinavia as author and translator, touches upon the work accomplished by him in his official capacity as the representative of the United States. It is declared, as is undeniably true, that few ministers have gone abroad with a fuller knowledge of and a deeper sympathy with the country to which they were sent than Mr. Anderson. We learn that by his keen interest in Danish politics and literature he gained a position of influence in Copenhagen beyond that exercised by any previous representative of our country, and that by his simple, unaffected cordiality he won a place in the hearts of the Copenhageners that will always keep his memory fresh in the charming little city of the North. His general interest in Scandinavia as a whole, too, as a land with a common ancestry and common traditions, did not a little towards diminishing the ill-feeling that unfortunately exists between the sister kingdoms. Mr. Anderson, while he carefully avoided identifying himself with any special party movement, made a careful study of the political, social, and commercial conditions of Denmark. He was accordingly, on the theory of the spoils system, ripe for retirement to private life, and the change of administrations at home insured his removal.

WALLACE'S DARWINISM.

Darwinism: An Exposition of the Theory of Natural Selection with some of its Applications. By Alfred Russel Wallace, LL.D., F.L.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xiv, 494, with map and illustrations.

THE author of this work is notoriously one of the originators of the Darwinian theory, "the origin of species by means of natural selection and the preservation of favored races in the struggle for life." The theory is familiar to all, as are also the effects of its promulgation. At a time when the minds of investigators were filled with uncertainty as to the foundations of their science, it supplied just what was needed to overthrow the belief in special creations, and to arouse to intense activity both partisans and opponents. In their zeal and confidence, the supporters of the elastic doctrine appeared to sweep everything before them. Their enthusiasm permitted no limits to their claims. With a certain class, to suspect their proof or doubt their creed was sufficient to bring a scientist into disrepute. By Natural Selection they accounted for everything; organic evolution was nothing but selection to them. This was going much too far for many of the evolutionists with whose aid they had triumphed. From the beginning of the agitation there were conservatives who would no more accept the new theory on faith than that it was to displace; these demanded proof of every step. Some of them viewed selection as only one of the numerous factors in evolution; others could see in it no real cause. For the latter it meant but a statement of the existence of effects making up the species or organism, a complex of results of the greatest number and variety of causes. In other words, Natural Selection, like special creation, was simply a screen behind which were to be sought the solutions of the many and complicated problems of life, its causes and its modifications. Fully recognizing the immense amount of good directly done by the new hypothesis, and hoping for even more from a reaction, these dissenters, if we may call them such, have worked on confident in their position and strength. From time to time they

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have come forward, through their researches, with calls for more consideration, and, with more or less reluctance, it has been accorded. A consequence is seen in the modification of the Darwinian theory, until, as accepted now, it differs greatly from what it was when Darwin laid down his pen. That an adverse current has set in is evident from the contents of the book before us; but the fact is not at all to be regretted, since it leads to increase of experimental knowledge and to more correct estimates of the value of the theory it threatens.

It is well that Mr. Wallace is in the field at the moment, able to strike in defence of his creed the strongest blow since those dealt by his illustrious partner, for there is no one among the disciples so well prepared for the undertaking. While it is difficult to imagine how the subject could have been brought forward more effectively than is done here, it is very doubtful if the book will stay the tide or change its direction in the least. In this review but few of the many points worthy attention can be noticed; besides, the bulk of the matter in the book was discussed upon its appearance in the works of Darwin, our author, and others. The purpose of the volume is to give a concise presentation of the theory and the evidence, and at the same time to counteract a recent tendency to subordinate selection to laws of variation, use and disuse, intelligence, and heredity.

It is not so very easy to determine from these chapters how much their author intends to cover by the terms "Darwinism" or "Natural Selection." In the preface the intention to deal even in outline with the vast subject of evolution is disclaimed, yet, by the time the reader finishes the pages headed "Darwinism—the Geological Evidences of Evolution," he may not be blamed for concluding that in Mr. Wallace's mind Darwinism and Evolution are synonymous, or, on rising from the last chapter, "Darwinism Applied to Man," that he accounts for everything by Natural Selection plus occasional interpositions of spirit. To illustrate, compare the following quotations. Taking up the discussion of some of the more fundamental problems and difficulties advanced by eminent naturalists, Mr. Wallace says:

"It is the more necessary to do this because there is now a tendency to minimize the action of Natural Selection in the production of organic forms, and to set up in its place certain fundamental principles of variation, or laws of growth, which, it is urged, are the real originators of the several lines of development, and of most of the variety of form and structure in the vegetable and animal kingdoms. These views have, moreover, been seized upon by popular writers to throw doubt and discredit on the whole theory of evolution, and especially on Darwin's presentation of that theory, to the bewilderment of the general public, who are quite unable to decide how far the new views, even if well established, tend to subvert the Darwinian theory, or whether they are really more than subsidiary parts of it, and quite powerless without it to produce any effect whatever."

From page 444 we copy a declaration of the faith:

"While admitting, as Darwin always admitted, the coöperation of the fundamental laws of growth and variation, of correlation and heredity, in determining the direction of lines of variation or in the initiation of peculiar organs, we find that variation and natural selection are ever-present agencies, which take possession, as it were, of every minute change originated by these fundamental causes, check or favor their further development, or modify them in countless varied ways according to the varying needs of the organism. Whatever other causes have been at work, Natural Selection is supreme to an extent which even Darwin himself hesitated to claim for it. The more we study it, the more we are convinced of its overpowering importance, and the more confidently we claim, in Darwin's own words, that 'it has been the most important, but not the exclusive, means of modification.'"

Accepting this as the more exact statement, the sceptical ask, for the more moderate, proof that selection is a supreme cause, or, for the more radical, in addition to proof of its existence, proof that it is really a cause. The book will satisfy neither; in fact, its version will only be accepted with considerable modification by many of the advocates of Darwinism.

Some students recognize phases or varieties in artificial selection, as, that due to climate, food, etc., that due to the effort of the organism, and that due to the will of man; these ask what in Natural Selection corresponds to man's will. If there is such an agent, it must be present and acting in artificial selection; so that the latter equals Natural Selection with the added element, the exercise of man's choice. An approach toward an answer is seen in the "Survival of the Fittest." Survival is a consequence of compliance with the demands of circumstances, and the responses to these are regulated by the laws of growth, etc. With the diversity in demands, the causes are numerous, and by bunching them together in the phrase Natural Selection nothing is explained.

In different paragraphs Darwinism is defined as a principle, a law, a theory, a self-acting process, descent with modification, Natural Selection, or the Survival of the Fittest. On one page "it acts solely by the preservation of useful variations," on another it "acts by the life or death of the individual submitted to its action." In answer to the objection that the first rudiments of certain organs could not have been of use, we note the following: "Now, the first remark to be made on objections of this nature is, that they are really outside the question of the origin of all existing species from allied species not very far removed from them, which is all that Darwin undertook to *prove* by means of his theory." In this connection we may use Darwin's words in expressing his conviction that species have been modified during a long course of descent: "This has been effected chiefly through the natural selection of numerous successive slight favorable variations, aided in an important manner by the inherited effects of the use and disuse of parts, and in an unimportant manner—that is, in relation to adaptive structures whether past or present—by the direct action of external conditions, and by variations which seem to us, in our ignorance, to arise spontaneously." Mr. Wallace would subtract from this the inheritance of the effects of use and disuse, and of the effects of the direct action of external conditions, except, perhaps, on organisms very low in the scale.

A constant employment of the word "use" and its derivatives makes it appear as if Lamarckism had served as a foundation for the theory. According to Wallace, Lamarck attributed the change of species chiefly to the effect of changes in the condition of life—such as climate, food, etc.—and especially to the desires and efforts of animals themselves to improve their condition, leading to a modification of form and size in certain parts, owing to the well-known physiological law that all organs are strengthened by constant use, while they are weakened or even completely lost by disuse. By this a most important difference between Lamarckism and Darwinism proper lies in the process of accumulation; it is further from our author's belief in that he advocates non-inheritance of acquired characters to strengthen his position. Galton and Weismann have not helped him greatly, since he admits transmission of predispositions, as in disease, or of tendencies in lines of descent in cases like those of the flat fishes; but Darwin's recognition of the existence of tendencies, in the words, "There can be little doubt that the tendency to vary in the same manner has often been so strong that all the individuals of the same species have been similarly modified without the aid of any form of selection," is declared to be without proof, and to be so entirely opposed to all we know of the facts of variation given by Darwin himself that the important word "all" is probably an oversight. By the older theory the presence of organs or their loss would be credited to use or disuse; the variation being induced by effort, and owing increase and permanence to it and to usage. The later one alleges the variation to be fortuitous, and that the beneficial (useful) is seized upon by selection, increase being made by further spontaneous variation. Wallace says of the wingless birds: "Year after year, therefore, those individuals which had shorter wings, or which used them least, were preserved; and thus, in time, terrestrial, wingless, or imperfectly winged races or species have been produced." A modern Lamarckian would read it thus: "Year after year the effects of disuse were felt by *all* the individuals, and, from lack of effort and use, a tendency in variation was induced which, continued for generations, has led to loss of ability to fly"; thus premising a modification of all the progeny, instead of a weeding-out process. It is admitted that in individual cases something may be left to chance; we see no proof, however, that most if not all sudden extinctions are not accidental, at least in so far as directly concerns the victims. The best examples of variation cited, such as the Oahu land-shells, show no proof of a weeding out.

Use (or a derivative) may be substituted for the word selection in the majority of instances without changing the sense. Much of the evidence adduced will serve the Lamarckian equally well, with little or no modification in statement. For instance, take the paragraph relating to the flounders, on page 129, which will also indicate the transmission of acquired characters through tendencies or habits consequent upon effort and use:

"Soles, turbots, and other flat fish are, as is well known, unsymmetrical. They live and move on their sides, the under side being usually differently colored from that which is kept uppermost. Now the eyes of these fish are curiously distorted in order that both eyes may be on the upper side, where alone they would be of any use. It was objected by Mr. Mivart that a sudden transformation of the eye from one side to the other was inconceivable, while, if the transit were gradual, the first step could be of no use, since this would not remove the eye from the lower side. But, as Mr. Darwin shows by reference to the researches of Malm and others, the young of these fish are quite symmetrical, and during their growth exhibit to us the whole process of change. This begins by the fish (owing to the increasing depth of the body) being unable to maintain the vertical position, so that it falls on one side. It then twists the lower eye as much as possible towards the upper side; and the whole bony structure of the head being at this time soft and flexible, the constant repetition of this effort causes the eye gradually to move round the head till it comes to the upper side. Now, if we suppose this process, which in the young is completed in a few days or weeks, to have been spread over thousands of generations during the development of these fish, those usually surviving whose eyes retained more and more of the position into which the young fish tried to twist them, the change becomes intelligible; though it still remains one of the most extraordinary cases of degeneration, by which symmetry—which is so universal a characteristic of the higher animals—is lost, in order that the creature may be adapted to a new mode of life,

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whereby it is enabled the better to escape danger and continue its existence."

The exercise of selection here is entirely suppositious, for some of the species have the eyes greatly distorted, others but little. In regard to want of symmetry, Mr. Wallace says, "When, however, it has become useful, as in the case of the single enlarged claw of many crustacea, it has been preserved by Natural Selection." It is not at all clear that this is an improvement on the explanation, "It has been induced and preserved by effort, use, and heredity."

Much of the evidence presented as new is taken from what apparently are exceptional cases, and from insufficient observations; in the conclusions drawn there is much use of such phrases as "may be due to" and "is probably due to." The presence of a great deal of assumption or guess work does not increase the value of the proof. The assumptions that the effects of dread and pain are not similar in men and other animals, that man, in general, has greater fear of death, that among lower creatures no fear is felt, that death is generally prompt, that the animal enjoys the height of pleasure in successfully escaping an enemy without experiencing the opposite in failure, etc., are far from established. The actions, shrinking, panting, trembling, struggling, moaning, shrieking, of birds or beasts in distress do not differ greatly from those of a human being in similar condition. If it is not fear of death that keeps the animal so constantly on its guard, and causes it to take such precautions for safety, we are left quite in the dark as to what occasions the terror.

A bird rejects an insect at a particular time for various reasons besides inedibility: he may not be hungry, it may be strange to him, he may prefer other food. Other individuals of his species may feed upon it readily; in other localities, or in scarcity of food more to their taste, the insect may form a considerable portion of the food supply of his own or different species. The first requisite in arguments of this kind is sufficient proof of the premises. Supposed selection through the inexperience of young birds does not appeal to us very strongly. In regard to the brown rabbits, of which "the white upturned tails of those in front serve as guides and signals to those more remote from home, to the young and feeble," it is a question whether this is founded on observation, and whether the white tail may not be more beneficial to the survivors, as keeping up the food supply by keeping down the number of rabbits, since it serves as a signal to the wolves, dogs, foxes, cats, weasels, hawks, owls, and others that prey upon them. The chapter on mimicry and warning colors is full of conjecture.

In all examples of true mimicry, Mr. Wallace says, the harmless is less abundant than the harmful, which is mimicked; from which we are to infer that, closely as some harmless snakes (for instance, Erythrolamprus venustissimus or Ophibolus doliatus) seem to copy species of Elapidæ, they are not examples of true mimicry. The idea advanced by others that the rattle of the rattlesnake is useful in preventing attack is adopted. The author says of the snake:

"If gently tapped on the head with a stick, it will coil itself up and lie still, only raising its head and rattling. It may then be easily caught. This shows that the rattle is a warning to its enemies that it is dangerous to proceed to extremities; and the creature has probably acquired this structure and habit because it frequents open and rocky districts, where protective color is needful to save it from being pounced upon by buzzards or other snake-eaters."

Garman shows the rattle to have originated as a consequence of effort and use, or habit, without need or appearance of selection; his conclusions being reached after long-continued study of the animals, of their embryology and of their anatomy. Whatever the merits of the conclusions, it seems to us that science has more to expect from the latter of the two methods employed in reaching them.

The cases of the crustaceans, Artemia salina and A. Milhausenii, the transformations of which, from one to the other, back and forth, on being taken from brackish to salt or from salt to brackish waters, or the transforming of either into or from Branchippus stagnalis of the fresh water, as noted by Semper, and so often used to illustrate the direct action of environment and the inheritance of its effects, are here met by suppositions only. Developments which in a struggle would no doubt be injurious—as the plumes in the peacock's tail or on birds of paradise—are supposed to arise from a condition of perfect adaptation to circumstances, with a surplus of vital energy which may be expended in this way without detriment. Particular degradations are said to be possibly due to correlation of growth or economy of nutrition; and different grades of reduction in other instances, it is held, may be caused by the action of several distinct causes, sometimes acting separately, sometimes in combination.

In the author's words, "The law of Natural Selection or the survival of the fittest is, as its name implies, a rigid law, which acts by the life or death of the individuals submitted to its action." Selection, as is admitted, only steps in after the variation has originated and after some use is found for it; survival is predicated only on what exists at a particular time; and it is by means of this post-factum post-mortem theory that we are to account for the origins of things. The struggle for life is usually spoken of as unceasing; on one page it is stated to be intermittent and exceedingly irregular in its incidence and severity, and on another it is said the war of nature is not incessant. To some extent what goes on among animals may be likened to what takes place on a tree full of blossoms, few of which mature in fruit, some being imperfect in the bud, some unfertilized, some destroyed by insects, some torn off by birds and mammals, some withered by the blight, some frosted, some scorched, some beaten down by the wind, the rain, and the hail, and some shrivelled up from want of nourishment because of drought, or weakness and disease in the tree. One would hardly dare to say that the fruits gathered at the end of the season survived because they were the fittest; in reality the only ones we have any warrant for calling less fit were the imperfect buds; and this book does not give proof that the proportion of destruction by accident in the case of the animals is so very much less that we can afford to drop it out of account in estimating the work of selection. There is no disproving the fact that the diverse laws act as aids or checks and counter checks to each other, and without doubt much is due to their action which now in our ignorance might be supposed due to selection.

In the last chapter the author brings forth a sort of spiritual climax, certain to give rise to much difference of opinion and to be rejected by many Darwinians. He here asserts his conviction that the theory is insufficient to account for much heretofore included, and to supply the deficiency he advocates a series of interpositions ("due, probably, to causes of a higher order than those of the material universe"), intruded in a manner like the glacial period in the earth's evolution, one of which introduced life, another sensation and consciousness, while another (or others, intellectual and moral) was limited to humanity. To establish the latter, he argues from the appearance of particular faculties, the mathematical, the musical, the artistic, the metaphysical, and the faculty of wit and humor, more or less completely lacking in savages and some or all of which are absent in the great majority of mankind. The facts given in regard to the possession of these faculties by particular communities or individuals would lead to the conclusion that they are regarded as special dispensations to the favored ones, though not stated in so many words. Reasoning powers are ascribed to instinct.

That the name of his partner is given to this book will be credited to the modesty of the author. But, after changing or abstracting entirely portions of Darwin's conclusions on which great stress was placed, as sexual selection and the progressive development of man's entire nature, and after injecting a theory of special manifestations of spiritism which Darwin himself might be most unlikely to admit, it is not quite exact to call the result Darwinism. In his splendid effort the author presents his theory as the only competent one, and asks acceptance of it as established truth. We have endeavored to indicate some of the respects in which too much has been claimed for it, believing it inimical to the best interests of science that the masses should blindly adopt it, or that students should prejudice the results of their future labors by committing themselves to a theory which is in great part unproved and of doubtful application.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

THE last of the "Boy Travellers" series (Harpers) does the grand tour of Mexico. Externally the book is most attractive, with its handsome binding and profuse illustrations, and the substance Mr. Knox gives is well worth its fine dress. He has made a careful study of the best works on Mexico, to which he makes proper acknowledgments, and they, with the help of his own extensive travels, have enabled him to attain a very high degree of accuracy. There may fairly be a question whether his history and statistics are really sugar-coated for his young readers by being put into the words of "Fred" and "Frank" and "Dr. Bronson," with their frequent rather forced jocoseness; but this is already an established feature of the series, and has to pass. It would be a pity to give any intending Mexican tourists the idea that by a few weeks of hurried study they could become "able to speak Spanish very well," as is reported to have been the case with the two boys of the book, though the narrative itself, later, shows their Spanish to have been of a halting kind. The pronunciation indicated for the more difficult geographical names is usually correct, but "She-waw-waw" for Chihuahua (p. 79) is wrong all through. The so-called Calendar Stone is mistakenly located in the base of one of the Cathedral towers; it has been removed to the National Museum. Cortez burns his ships (p. 251) in the old style; probably the orators have given that error an indestructible life. To say of the battle of the 5th of May, 1862, that it "is regarded as the Waterloo or Gettysburg of the French in Mexico; it sealed the fate of Maximilian's empire and reëstablished the republic," is a most fearful and unaccountable blunder. The pressing question of drainage for the city and valley of Mexico is handled with intelligence, except for apparent ignorance that great works to solve it are now being pushed. Such slight blemishes as we have noted really detract almost

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nothing from an unusually painstaking and successful book.

'The Walks Abroad of Two Young Naturalists,' by C. Beaugrand, translated and edited by David Sharp (Thos. Y. Crowell & Co.), is one of the books of the order of sugar-coated pills, but in which, to our mind, the coating is even more nauseous than the drug. The systematic zoölogy conveyed is antiquated and skeleton-like. The story in which it is imbedded is "trifling," as our Southern brothers say. The translation, though probably correct enough, is wooden and without literary merit. The original may have had a lively and agreeable style, but, if so, it is gone. The illustrations are coarse and trashy in many cases, though with some exceptions. It is hardly credible that such books as this can interest anybody in natural history. The opposite effect would seem much more likely.

Mme. P. de Nanteuil's 'Captain,' translated by Laura Ensor (George Routledge & Sons), seems to have been written to justify the Socratic oath; for the hero of the story is a supernatural, or at the very least a preternatural, dog, whom the dictates of natural piety suggest that it would be highly proper to invoke. He is a Newfoundland, whom Yvon Jossic, the human hero of the tale, picks up at St. Pierre, and starts upon an illustrious career. He saves his master from drowning and from robbers; he rescues men, women, and children from all manner of perils by sea and land; he forwards greatly Yvon's promotion in the French navy; he takes part in—we had almost said directs—the expedition to Tonkin, though he is responsible for none of the disasters of that ill-starred enterprise. He combines in himself all that has ever been good of dog since the world was. He is the dog of Ulysses, the dog of Montargis, once even the dog of Alcibiades. He leads an absolutely blameless life, and does not die at the end of the book. It will be seen that he is a dog of romance rather than of naturalism or of natural history. But this need not prevent his story from being put into the hands of young readers. It is entertaining; it has a good deal of action and liveliness in it, and some information about life at sea in the French navy and about foreign countries. It inspires kindly feelings and the home affections, and we do not know why it should not be called a very good child's book. At any rate, children will be sure to like it.

In the story of 'Plucky Smalls' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), Mrs. Mary Bradford Crowninshield gives a capital description of the life of an apprentice on board of one of our men-of-war. The hero is a little city wharf-rat, who gives an account of himself and his adventures in a natural and modest way, which makes him a very attractive and interesting little character. The story ends abruptly, leaving the *Manhattan* on a European cruise, but with a promise of a continuation which we should be glad to see realized.

A manly, upright boy, who has all the characteristics of his age and at the same time is animated with a higher purpose than mere pleasure-seeking, is an ideal which many writers have striven to realize with varying success. The failure generally comes from making the studious and practical side of the boy's character so prominent that the other side is entirely obscured, and the result is a prig. This was to a certain degree true of some of the earlier stories of JAK, but in the latest, 'Rolf and his Friends' (Crowell & Co.), the ideal has been more nearly reached. The hero is not a perfect boy, not even a good scholar, but a warm-hearted, unselfish little fellow, to whom we become much more strongly attached than if he had been a prodigy of good sense and learning. The astronomical chapters contain much information about the sun and moon, though most boys would much prefer to learn about them as Rolf did than in the prosaic way of reading. The story is one of quiet but sustained interest, culminating in a very well described incident.

In 'Famous Men of Science' (Crowell & Co.) Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton has brought together brief popular biographies of Galileo, Sir Isaac Newton, Linnæus, Cuvier, William and Caroline Herschel, Alexander von Humboldt, Humphrey Davy, Audubon, Morse, Lyell, Joseph Henry, Agassiz, Darwin, and Frank Buckland. Each biography is accompanied by a portrait on wood of its subject. The different articles are compiled from the usual sources, and aim to give a general idea of the experiences, struggles, and successes of famous men of science in language suited to intelligent boys and girls. Dates and dry details are shunned as much as possible. The author, on the whole, has been fairly successful in her endeavor, and we have not noticed any serious slips in matters of fact or of good taste in the manner in which the information is presented. The portraits, though coarsely made, would be tolerably good but that they have been very poorly printed.

We have in 'Daddy Jake the Runaway; and Short Stories Told after Dark by "Uncle Remus"' (The Century Co.) another glimpse into the inexhaustible world of negro superstition and folk-lore, and it is noticeable once more how familiarly Mr. Harris moves in it and how little he repeats himself. The admixture of witchcraft with the customary animal myths makes the collection essentially juvenile, while the title story, which fills nearly half the book, is expressly composed for the young. What impresses us most after closing this handsome volume is the fact that it does more (quite incidentally and unconsciously, we believe) to give children an idea, faint as it is, of the nature of slavery than all our so-called school histories put together.

Daddy Jake, a favored house servant, during the war, half kills a field overseer who attempted to give him orders and first struck him. Of course he then runs away. "In those days," explains Mr. Harris, "a negro who struck a white man was tried for his life, and, if his guilt could be proven, he was either branded with a hot iron and sold to a speculator, or he was hanged." And generally, as we know, he was not tried at all, and was apt to be lynched without ceremony. The master's little boy and girl innocently go in quest of their old friend and companion, drifting down the river in a boat. Stranded at night, the sleeping children are discovered and cared for by a negro woman, one of a band of runaways whose refuge is in the midst of a neighboring cane-brake, to which, as may be supposed, Daddy Jake has already found his way. "Crazy Sue" tells her story to her little charges, opening another vista of slaveholding atrocity. She had been a house-servant, and a mother with twins. For the crime of falling asleep while nursing them, her master sends her to a distant field to labor.

"I went, kaze I 'bleeze ter go; yit all day long, whiles I wuz hoein' I kin year dem babies cryin'. Look like sometimes dey wuz right at me, an' den ag'in look like dey wuz way off yander. I kep' on a-goin' an' I kep' on a-hoein', an' de babies kep' on a-famishin'. Dey des fade away, an' bimeby dey died, bofe un um on de same day. On dat day I had a fit an' fell in de fier, an' dat how come I burnt up so."

Mr. Harris artistically sets off but does not efface this woful recital with a comical Brer Rabbit story, from the lips of the same poor creature.

The rapt followers of Uncle Remus have long been familiar with the "patter-rollers," and perhaps have been told what was the special function of this night watch as respects the slaves who might be found abroad after dark. They give point to the amusing adventure of Becky's Bill in "How the Birds Talk," as he goes through the dark Two Mile Swamp. "He come 'long, he did, en de fus' news you know a great big ole owl flew'd up in a tree en snap he bill des like somebody crackin' a whip. . . . Den he holler out: '*Who* cooks—*who* cooks—*who* cooks fer *you*-all?'" And the frightened negro, who "sorter men' he gait," twice responds, the second time taking off his hat—"Well, sir, hit's des like I tell you. Mos' inginer'lly endurin' er de week, mammy she cooks, but on Sundays, mo' speshually w'en dey got comp'ny, ole Aunt Dicey she cooks"; and presently he takes to his heels.

Plantation life is further exhibited in the catalogue of Uncle Remus's occupations as jack-of-all-trades. There is, in short, nearly as much occasion for reflection as for amusement in this book, and we recommend it to parents with a hearty good will. The pictorial illustrations are often effective, but Uncle Remus still awaits his double with the pencil, and we hope he too may yet arise south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Teutonic Mythology. By Viktor Rydberg, Ph.D. Authorized translation from the Swedish by Rasmus B. Anderson, LL.D. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1889.

THE work that Mr. Anderson has translated under the above title originally appeared in Swedish as 'Researches in Germanic Mythology,' a name that might well have been retained, since the more ambitious form given it by the translator immediately suggests and challenges in some respects an unfortunate comparison with the monumental work of Jacob Grimm. One purpose of Rydberg's researches, as stated in the chapter on the Dietrich Saga, is to show how Norse mythology, so called, is but a caricature of the real Norse mythology, as he conceives it. The sentence in which this is expressed is worthy of quotation, as it fairly shows, also, a characteristic of the translation that Mr. Anderson has given us. Speaking of the myth concerning the war between Mannus-Halfdan's sons, he says, on p. 207:

"Among the many causes coöperating in Christian times in giving what is now called 'Norse mythology' its present character, there is not one which has contributed so much as the rejection of this myth towards giving 'Norse mythology' the stamp which it hitherto has borne of a narrow, illiberal, town mythology, which, built chiefly on the foundation of the Younger Edda, is, as shall be shown in the present work, in many respects a caricature of the real Norse, and, at the same time, in its main outlines Teutonic, mythology."

That Mr. Anderson should accept such a dictum with equanimity proves how wholly he is disposed to coincide with Rydberg's views. His own 'Norse Mythology' (Chicago, 1875, and now in a second edition) is made on precisely the lines that Rydberg decries. It is apparent, however, on the other hand, why the present work should appeal to him, as it has all the detail which the other strikingly, and, no doubt, purposely, lacks. It is, nevertheless, in his mind doubtless calculated to supplement his book rather than to supplant it, and this to a great extent it does.

Rydberg's 'Mythology,' in its English form, a book of 700 pages, is the extremely clever production of a prolific contributor to the va-

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rious departments of Swedish literature. His material has been drawn from almost every possible source, but in the use he makes of it he is often entirely too optimistic, and many of his interpretations are as he would have them, not as sober criticism has hitherto regarded them. He is too sanguine to be scientific. Not infrequently his assumptions are but clever guesses, which he then proceeds to use as premises upon which to build an elaborate argument. Many of his dicta are, accordingly, new, and while they outwardly bear the mark of stability, in reality rest upon insecure foundations. All this is the more to be regretted since there is need in English of a more readable mythology than Grimm's, which, after all, is but a storehouse of fact without adequate literary form. Rydberg's book is from first to last abundantly interesting. The enthusiasm of the author for his subject is infectious, and the critical reader, less sanguine than he, will feel regret that he cannot always follow him where he so fearlessly leads.

Mr. Anderson's translation is, in its English, not quite all that might have been expected of him. As a result, no doubt, of the constant association of the last few years with a foreign language, he allows himself to lapse into awkward and un-English sentences like this, for instance, on p. 82: "Thus traditions concerning immigrations from the North to Germany have been current among the continental Teutons already in the first century after Christ." Worse than this, however, because affecting more nearly the material of the work, is the orthography of Old Norse names, which have been given in a manner utterly hap-hazard and arbitrary; indeed, there is no discoverable principle in their rendition that has been consistently carried out. Vowel quantity is sometimes indicated, sometimes not. Umlaut is treated in the same inconsiderate way. We have, for instance, Fjolsvin and Fjölsvinsmal; the Völuspa, but the Volundarkvida. Final "i" is retained, as it should be, in Elli and Hjarrandi, but is replaced elsewhere by "e," which, moreover, will absolutely fail of its purpose in such names as Vile, Nide, Hate, Grane, Loke, and others, as the lay reader will inevitably pronounce them one and all as monosyllables. Names in "-ir" are also vacillating. Œgir is the only one that appears throughout in its proper form; otherwise we have "-er." Final "r" is omitted from, for instance, Dagr, forming thus the consistent and intelligible form Dag; Loptr, however, is rendered by the absolutely arbitrary form Lopta. Initial "h" before consonants is usually retained; Hloridi, however, appears as Loride on p. 31 and Lorride on p. 59. Proper names of all kinds, indeed, have fared badly in the translation. The reader will look in vain, at least on an English map, to select instances quite at random, for Kabulistan and Pendschab, or for St. Gaelen. On p. 82 we are told of "Sturlason the author of Heimskringla," which is an unfair way to render an Old Norse name, since the second member in it is a true patronymic and not a surname at all. Snorri Sturlason, or, if one chooses, Snorri, was the author of Heimskringla. Odainsakr, the field-of-the-not-dead, is, probably by a misprint, indexed as Odinsaker, and there are sins of omission from the index and of commission in the orthography of both index and text almost without end. The book is dedicated by the author and the translator to King Oscar II.

The New Eldorado: A Summer Journey to Alaska. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 8vo, xii, 352 pp.

MR. BALLOU'S journey was made on the Northern Pacific Railway, via the Yellowstone Park, to Tacoma on Puget Sound, to Alaska and return by steamer, and eastward by the Canadian Pacific Road. His book, however, is not a diary of his travels, nor are its contents restricted to matters of personal observation. He has used his line of travel as a path from which to take numerous excursions into the region of compilation, and at other times to be traversed rapidly or at leisure as occasion dictated. The author's experience in bookmaking has enabled him to combine his observations and his compiled materials with due subordination and coherency, while an easy and unpretentious style makes the whole very pleasant and not unprofitable to the reader. The book, while containing no new matters of fact, nevertheless registers the impressions of an intelligent and alert observer who is also an experienced traveller. It is on the whole a good piece of workmanship.

The author is very enthusiastic over the mineral and other resources of the Alaskan region, and has the highest praise for the beauty and novelty of the scenery along the steamer route. It is certain that, of its kind, there is nothing accessible to the ordinary traveller in any part of the civilized world which can surpass the fiords of southeastern Alaska and the glaciers and peaks of the St. Elias Alps. On the other hand, it is probable that the mineral wealth of the Territory, while doubtless great, will require a very considerable expenditure of time and capital to make it available, and that its development will be slow and fitful. The enthusiasm of Mr. Ballou and some other recent writers is, perhaps, only a natural reaction from the over-depreciation, fostered by interested parties, not long since in vogue.

Mr. Ballou's facts for the most part are well chosen and accurate, though occasional slips might be noticed in cases which have not fallen under his personal observation. We think he might have omitted the preposterous yarn which relates to the existence of living mammoths. These are appropriately located on the headwaters of the "Snake River," a stream not known to geographers, and doubtless deriving its name from the fact that there are no snakes in Alaska. The statement (p. 149) that there are no toads or similar animals is, however, quite erroneous. A small toad is not rare near Sitka, a small frog extends its range far within the Arctic circle in the Yukon region, and the bullfrog of southeastern Alaska may be seen in effigy on the rattles of every medicine-man. The inference that the whole range of the Aleutian Islands is volcanic, which might be drawn from sundry observations of the author, is also an error. This chain of islands existed long before the present volcanoes were elevated, the volcanic islets (though numerous) are in a minority, and the westernmost group of the chain is entirely free from volcanic rocks and is probably of mesozoic age.

As a whole, however, the book is unusually free from erroneous statements about the country, and is, among the numerous "tourist books" to which the Alaska excursions have given rise, decidedly the best we have examined. It is not illustrated, the presence of a map would have added much to its usefulness, and the absence of an index is to be regretted.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

The Little People's Calendar. White & Allen. 50 cents.
Traill, H. D. Lord Strafford. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Trumbull, H. C. Principles and Practice: A Series of Brief Essays. 6 vols. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles.

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Containing Directions for a Course of Experiments in General Chemistry. By Ira Remsen, Professor in the Johns Hopkins University. 12mo. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail 46 cents.

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German Scientific Monographs.

Edited for American Students by Oswald Seidensticker, Professor of the German Language and Literature in the University of Pennsylvania. 12mo. Paper.

NO. I. GOETHE'S NATURWISSENSCHAFTLICHE ARBEITEN, Vortrag gehalten im Frühling 1853 in der deutschen Gesellschaft zu Königsberg. Von H. Helmholtz. Professor an der Universität in Berlin. Teachers' price, 30 cents. By mail, 33 cents.

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